Trends in Education

34

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INNOVATION ISSUE

Supervising the Teacher

Extra book reviews in this issue

Trends in Education

34 JULY 1974

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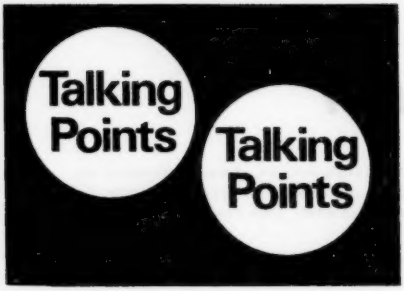

Attitudes to Change

The English have always been in two minds on the subject of change. In the seventeenth century a distinguished judge, Sir Edward Coke, declared: 'Hold all innovations and new ways suspicious.' In the eighteenth, Dr. Johnson was grumbling that 'the age is running mad after innovation', while Arthur Young was praising the new highways for 'new people—new ideas—new exertions'. So it is in the twentieth century with innovation in education: it is planned for, protested at, muttered about or welcomed with enthusiasm.

Since the 1940s there have been a number of institutional factors making for change in education. There was the 1944 Act itself which, by legislating for separate stages, encouraged those responsible for each to consider its own terms of reference *ab initio*. The 1958 White Paper, which called for sound and varied secondary education for all, also had a word for the younger children 'who will for the first time have a primary school of their own'; and the 1956 White Paper on technical education offered new perspectives for the further education colleges.

Reinforcing statutes and White Paper came the massive institutional reports, Newsom and Plowden, with chapter and verse for the gospel of new things to be done. Even the old guard was urging those at the front to go forward: the Secondary Schools Examinations Council said in 1960 that 'the need was for different syllabuses, types of question and even different marking systems'; and the CSE was born, to 'reflect, even enhance, rising standards in the schools, and . . . meet, so far as is humanly possible, the individual needs of pupils in all their variety'.

From examinations the eye of the innovator turned inevitably to the curriculum. Nuffield had already irrigated some corners of this rather barren territory. A hint in 1962 that the Ministry itself might be showing an interest in the curriculum was an irritant that produced, if not a pearl, at least a Schools Council to institutionalize change still further. Meantime the schools themselves were reacting to growth stimuli at both ends, as more children started earlier and left later.

With so many prods and nudges and downright lurches in the direction of change, how could the schools not raise the banner of reform that was being so warmly and firmly pressed into their already full hands? But in case the message should be missed, other voices too were raised, outside the system, calling for new ways of doing the old job. Researching sociologists, environmentalists, psychologists and politicians, were suggesting new goals, even perhaps changing the game, which was itself at times in danger of being disrupted by the spectators, as parents and publicists talked themselves and each other into campaigns for advance. It was all very exciting—for the innovators. And perhaps some of the people who were expected to do the innovating—the teachers—were caught up in the heady atmosphere.

But not all. While the innovators were away attending the meetings and the conferences and the courses and the discussions that innovations in education inevitably provoke, their colleagues were holding the fort. They were the ones who had to give up their precious free periods and who had to deal with the inevitable amalgamation of classes and the seemingly arbitrary changes in the timetable ('only until Mr. Smith comes back from secondment'). To such people

innovation has come to mean disruption rather than change, resentment rather than excitement, cynicism rather than wonder. With unfailing regularity Monday morning came round, and they were again facing their classes with chalk and talk and books and exercises.

To expect it to be otherwise is to expect teachers to be very different from their fellow human beings. Research into the attitudes to be found among the members of other trades or professions has—not surprisingly—demonstrated that the ready innovators are the young, the leaders of opinion, the highly qualified, and those with access to the latest information and the opportunity to discuss it with their peers. The others eventually follow, having seen how the land lies, accepting the inevitable but resenting to some degree the necessity that has dragged them along with it.

Nevertheless, change there has undoubtedly been, too much for some, not enough for others . . . too fast, too slow . . . with not enough teachers, not the right training, not the right reception for teachers who are trained to innovate. But the process continues because society changes, and knowledge changes, and the teachers themselves respond to the situation as they find it and innovate because they cannot help it.

It is too soon for a final assessment; the questions are in any event still changing. But thirty years after the 1944 Act is not a bad moment to commission some views on changing education. Some varying responses are to be found in this issue of TRENDS.

Gypsy children

We have no reliable statistics of the number of gypsy children of school age in this country. But there are indications that well over 10,000 may be attending school only spasmodically and for short periods—if they attend at all. Why is this community seemingly reluctant to take advantage of educational opportunity? Nomadism is, of course, one explanation but some research has suggested that there are others. The 1968 Caravan Sites Act required local authorities to make adequate site provision, and nearly 100 official sites have opened. This has tended to reduce the nomadism of the gypsy community, but nomadism is still a factor affecting school attendance, and LEAs are sometimes reluctant to make special provision for the children of travelling families. However, other factors must also be taken into account.

Many travellers believe that school is an inadequate preparation for the rigours of their life style. Illiterate parents, who may have brief and unhappy memories of education, are reluctant to expose their children to what they imagine will be the inevitable humiliation and prejudice. If a brief experience of school proves to be traumatic for the child, their solution is to have no more of education. For many gypsy children the family will prescribe an early adult rôle which is both economically and socially essential.

Where local education authorities have made positive and flexible arrangements to provide education for gypsy children, the response has been encouraging. A school in Surrey has taken children from a nearby site for some years. It regularly receives between 20 and 30 travellers, proportionally over 40 per cent of the school roll. There are induction classes for infants followed by dispersal to normal classes at junior level. Other authorities have provided mobile classrooms which visit a number of sites offering preparatory education for entry to normal school. In East Yorkshire there is a policy of collecting children from unofficial sites and taking them to a special unit where a suitable curriculum is organized. There are close links with local primary and secondary schools to which the children are transferred when they are considered ready. Many parents are keen to see

their children enrol in normal schools, and schooling has been a strong factor in changing the migratory patterns of the families concerned.

A different arrangement has been running for some years in Bedfordshire where a special unit is provided on a school site and children are taken to it each day by bus. (The provision of transport seems to be an essential ingredient of any successful scheme.) The teacher in charge is released from normal duties at times during the week to establish valuable links with the families. During assembly, play, meals and games, the gypsy children in the unit are totally integrated with the main school community, and individual children are admitted to normal classes when the time seems appropriate. The companionship of the special unit continues for those who need reassurance.

Some authorities have as a first step started teaching on caravan sites, making use of a caravan or a community building. However, occasional vandalism and the relative isolation of the teachers concerned have usually forced the unit to move to the site of an existing school.

Few authorities have attempted to solve the problems of providing secondary education for travelling children. By the age of 13 many gypsy children are already adult in attitude and function. This, combined with little primary experience, makes normal secondary education a non-starter for the majority. Hertfordshire has a scheme that began in the social services department whereby a caravan classroom is provided; an experienced teacher living on site has achieved promising results with children of secondary age using a varied curriculum orientated to the interests of the children themselves.

The West Midlands authority has introduced one interesting development. It has appointed a supervisor of gypsy education who serves five county boroughs. He has suggested that local needs could be met by providing mobile classrooms to be parked on school premises. He has also proposed that a regional records system should be set up so that an attempt can be made to counter the bad effects that nomadism has on the continuity of gypsy children's education.

There are signs that the concern of the gypsy parent for the education of his children is increasing. The advantages of literacy are becoming more and more apparent to those whose aim is to adapt to modern conditions without abandoning a traditional way of life. Two national voluntary bodies for gypsy education have been established — the National Gypsy Education Council (NGEC) and the Advisory Committee for the Education of Romany and other Travellers (ACERT). ACERT has a full-time field officer with a specific brief to advise LEAs and to assist in the training of staff. Voluntary helpers are taking part in the running of playgroups and adult literacy schemes— indeed, many developments in gypsy education have sprung from voluntary initiative.

Activities in this small but interesting area of educational need seem to suggest that in a caring and tolerant community encouraging results can be achieved. Can we expect that an adequate number of committed teachers will be moved to take up work of this kind and that training will be provided? In 1973 the Department organized its first short course on the education of gypsy and other travelling children, and this is to be repeated in 1974.

Design for living

When Random House published Rachel Carson's *Silent Spring* back in the early '60s, the ecological movement was born. Only a year or two earlier, Jane Jacobs, an American architectural journalist, published her best-known work, *The Death and Life of Great American Cities.* In that book she argued that much of the violence

and senseless crime committed in cities like New York and Detroit is caused by the huge impersonal housing complexes spawned by teams of architects and blessed by municipal authorities. Vilified, naturally enough, by the architects—often on the strange grounds that since she was only a journalist her views could largely be discounted—Jane Jacobs saw her cause taken up by others, and what was once an extreme heresy is now in danger of becoming an institutionalized and hollow orthodoxy.

Essentially, what Rachel Carson and Jane Jacobs were saying was that man is busily creating for himself an environment that will do him lasting harm. Of course, we feel about pollution—or bad housing for that matter—much as Calvin Coolidge's clergyman felt about sin: we are against it. But exactly what are we against? No one, presumably, is demanding higher levels of lead in the bloodstream or more sulphur in the atmosphere. Even so, we accept such things as the price we have to pay for industrialization, and we are willing, it seems, to condone all but the worst excesses in pursuit of economic growth.

But what about the so-called 'grey areas', those ill-defined situations in which there is room for debate? For example, we know that crash barriers on the central reservation of motorways save lives. How much, then, are we as a nation prepared to spend to save a life that would otherwise be lost? £10? Of course. £100? £1000? Certainly. £100,000? £1,000,000? Obviously not. Then how much *are* we prepared to spend, and how do we arrive at that sum? Similarly, when housing in so many of our city centres is so poor, can we really afford to spend money on well-designed, high-quality building, or should we throw up tower blocks as quickly as we can? Of course, this assumes that bad design is cheaper than good. But if a badly designed kitchen knife will cut you sooner or later, what harm will a badly designed building do? And will that subtle harm be more wounding and more permanent than any cut?

Last July, at a DES conference at Horncastle, Professor Bruce Archer touched on some of these points. 'So if we were to say now', he warned, 'in the light of modern environmental crises, "there are no more green valleys", "growth is evil", "change, novelty, and newness are not necessarily good", "exploration is anti-social", "consumption is contra-indicative for survival", we are attacking instincts which are at the mainsprings of our animal life, at the mainsprings of our biological function, and can only cause deep perturbation and stress.'

'. . . the case for a new approach to design in general education', Professor Archer argued, 'rests on two issues of major importance: first, the need for public sensibility to environmental, planning, social and aesthetic problems, and secondly, the need for a fundamental value base in general education to restore lost confidence. The purposes and problems of design education of the general population [are] analogous to literacy and numeracy.'

If that is so, one is gloomily tempted to reply, then the cause is lost. Literacy, as Archer himself says, includes the ability to appreciate and to be enlarged by literature, numeracy, the ability to appreciate and be enlarged by mathematical logic. How many people can honestly claim to be either literate in that sense, or numerate in that sense—or both?

'. . . the focus of design education', Professor Archer concluded, 'is . . . not just simply the setting up of joint projects between the art room and the science lab. It is not simply cooperation between the geography class and handicrafts. The emphasis of design education is *not* to try to make everyone a first-rate or second-rate creative artist or craftsman, but to try to give everyone a good grounding in design sensibility analogous to literacy and numeracy.

'If we are to succeed I think that we have to be very careful to pitch our response at the right level. If we are too facile, that is to say if we pitch our response at merely creating inter-disciplinary projects or if we allow the idea of design education to be run away with by over-enthusiastic art and craft teachers who see it as a rebirth of traditional craft teaching (though we could do with some of that), then I think we will have failed to have touched some of these fundamentals. We will have failed to respond to the crisis of control, to the crisis of ecology, and we will have failed to influence events. On the other hand, if we pitch our response at too profound a level, at the level of philosophical conjecture, at the level of the discussion of the theory of aesthetics (although we could do with some of that too), then we will assuredly miss the time, we will miss the tide, and add to the general disenchantment with institutions and their ability to handle the problems of the world. Whatever we do has got to be in full cooperation with our colleagues in teacher training, in art and design schools, in the universities, in professional training, and in environmental education . . . '.

School Inspection and OECD

Interest is taken from time to time in the educational press in the extent of UK interest in education conferences under the auspices of OECD.

One such conference was organised in June 1974 as part of a larger project, planned at Estoril in November 1972, on the 'Creativity of the School'. It was recognised, at Estoril, that inspectors could play a major part in the concept of creativity in the school and this Paris conference was, therefore, a direct outcome of this decision.

The UK was represented by members of the Inspectorate, by a chief inspector for the ILEA, by a headmaster and a chief education officer. It was considered vital that the local and national inspectorate should be represented and that the point of view of the schools and the LEAs themselves should be available. The UK delegation was one of the three largest of the visiting groups.

Despite differences particularly between France and Belgium on one hand and the UK and Switzerland on the other, in the organisation and responsibilities of the inspectorates, common ground was reached on a number of issues. The concept of the 'Creativity of School' was difficult to accept in those countries where the curriculum was centrally devised and administered and where the function of the inspectorate was to maintain this national pattern and to grade teachers with a view to promotion. In the systems where schools have the freedom to innovate and where there is no nationally determined curriculum then inspectors, whether national or local, can, and do, act as evaluators, counsellors, disseminators and agents of change.

On more general topics in the field of 'The Rôle of the Inspectorate' limited agreement was reached on (a) the necessity of evaluating before advising. The views of the UK delegation on the importance of self-evaluation within the school as well as evaluation by the inspectorate was accepted by the majority. (b) Also discussed was the 'right' of teachers to be evaluated. The UK delegates explained that the evaluation of an individual teacher, insofar as it was done, was part of the responsibility of heads and senior staff. Obviously for a system such as the French, this was not considered a suitable, or realistic, approach. (c) There was a considerable measure of agreement on the type of person needed in an inspectorate. Personality was considered to be the vital factor; differences only appeared in the methods of selection for the different national inspectorates.

The conference provided a valuable forum for the discussion of many basic aspects of inspectorial work and technique.

Innovation

Innovation, as the following articles show, is not just a form of deliberately induced change; it has profound implications for the whole range of education, its content and its method

Educational innovation and change: origins and problems

L. J. BURROWS

L. J. Burrows was Chief Inspector for Primary Education from 1966 to 1973

We live in the fastest-moving period of innovation and change in our educational history. 'If only', sighed a head in my hearing recently, 'a five-year moratorium could be declared on all curriculum development, just to give us time to catch up!' In today's context of sociological and psychological advance we dare not set the educational clock back even if we would. Yet somehow we need to ensure (in the warning words of John Withrington, an experienced secondary staff inspector, at the time of the issue of Circular 10/65) that 'we do not march boldly forward into a morass'. A glimpse at the origins and processes of educational innovation and change may help to furnish guidelines.

Change and innovation are not necessarily the same. Change takes place all around us in society, and is bound to invade education also. We cannot insulate the education service from prevailing changes in values, judgments, motives and relationships. Do we accept the inevitability of change and try to influence its nature and direction, or do we stand aloof and thereby, in effect, condemn ourselves to being swept along rudderless by the prevailing social currents? If the former, we must innovate as part of the process, for new knowledge, new ideas and new aspirations are bound to break out in practical applications.

Reasons for innovation

Educational innovation is under our control in a way that social and economic change is not; but the motives of innovations are of the greatest importance. Research, for instance, can be 'pure', set up to discover answers whose nature is not known in advance; much of the research into children's behaviour patterns is of this kind. On the other hand, research into the organization and working of comprehensive schools has, sometimes, attracted the accusation that it is intended in advance to justify the system and is

therefore a tool of predetermined aspirations to social engineering. The educational innovator has on the whole avoided such changes, at any rate in the field of curricular innovation. The Nuffield science programmes, for example, were geared to a theory of learning in that the materials and guides were designed to make children ask questions and in a disciplined way to seek answers; but the theory was one with which most teachers who were prepared to use them agreed. Innovation in mathematics teaching and learning, on the other hand, was probably sparked off by a widespread discontent with traditional practices which left most pupils —not to mention teachers—either detesting or afraid of mathematics; fortunately the various innovatory movements were led by people who were not only full of missionary zeal to spread the knowledge they themselves so valued, but who also understood that the child was the second, equally important, factor in the equation and that the business of innovation was to make mathematics meaningful to him. Most of the successful curricular innovation we have seen has paid regard to this educationally unexceptionable motive.

Some dangers

The main danger inherent in change without controlled innovation is that of 'too little, too late'. Reluctance to change is rarely a formula for success. Thus the Newsom Report pointed the way to the kind of reforms to make the curriculum more meaningful to less able pupils; but *Enquiry I* showed only too clearly how widespread was our failure to do so. Admittedly, this group of young people was our most difficult to cater for, but in schools where a conscious policy of innovation has since then been systematically pursued, their response and attainments today are considerably better than the *Enquiry* survey indicated. The next few years will show the extent of this success. The main dangers in innovation, on the other hand, are threefold: first, too much too fast; second, the application of new approaches, techniques and materials in unsuitable circumstances or with staff who have not grasped what they are being asked to do, and why; and third, the pursuit of side-tracks unrelated to the main stream of learning.

Sudden and rapid growth

Without vision the people perish. The innovators of the last 20 years have generally shared a conviction that schools should be and can be made lively and stimulating places for all—or almost all—their pupils; that good social attitudes, relationships, working habits and techniques can be cultivated in them, and that the curriculum itself can be made relevant to the pupil and his world today. Before the second world war the view was somewhat different: the task of the school was to provide knowledge; the pupil had to conform. In this setting only the boldest teachers could take the lead in educational innovation. Indeed, an attitude of

cautious resistance to change, let alone innovation, persisted well after the war in many schools.

'Have you ever thought of trying projects with the girls?' I asked a secondary modern headmistress after an afternoon spent in 1950 with one apathetic example of chalk and talk after another.

'Yes', she replied, in a tone that brooked no further debate, 'we tried them—summer term, 1931; they were a failure.'

Innovation in those days happened as a result of individual enterprise; there was no central agency, very little coordination. Rumours of interesting work in some of the experimental independent schools were heard; a few grammar schools, already highly proficient in the academic field, developed excellent work in the arts; and some of the new senior schools tentatively explored new curricular approaches within their usually very limited resources. But of general movement there was little or none. The raising of the school-leaving age in 1948 was marked by none of the centrally organized preparation and innovation that has characterized the repeat performance in 1972-73.

In the 1950s all of this changed. The economic transformation of West Germany and Japan, the shock of the soaring sputnik, and growing evidence of a consuming interest in all technologically or culturally advanced countries in educational reform, prompted urgent questionings as to whether our own schools were keeping pace. Research, reform and experiment became respectable, even virtuous, slogans. At the same time the 'child-centred' approaches of an increasing number of determined infant school heads were judged by observers to be conferring real benefits on the children, and their pragmatic methods received at least implicit theoretical support from advances in child psychology. The scene was set for a massive advance, and the 1960s impetus came from three main directions. The Schools Council was established as a standing source of curricular experiment and innovation, supported jointly by all the main partners in the education service. Secondly, a number of benevolent trusts, notably Nuffield, Leverhulme and Gulbenkian, increased their participation in education by sponsoring many major and minor projects. Thirdly, several smaller agencies, including university departments and colleges of education, entered the field and acted as centres of interest locally.

Need for direction

The work of all these is too well known to need description, and it has lead inevitably to the growing level of demand for supporting in-service training envisaged by the James Report. The field of initial training too has responded with considerable enthusiasm. In particular, the doubling in size of colleges of education during the 1960s enabled the recruitment to their staffs of many teachers anxious to contribute to innovation. An early result was that the changes in approach, content, and method in the primary schools, which were approvingly described in the Plowden Report and

which stemmed largely from earlier work in the progressive infant schools, were accelerated by the influx of young teachers trained in an atmosphere of innovation. The quiet encouragement, and in some cases active leadership, given by a number of chief education officers and their advisory staffs, have been another significant factor. In total, the change in atmosphere in 20 years is near complete (even if performance sometimes lags behind). To quote one young teacher in a keenly active school: 'It's like living in Skylab now; we eat, breathe and sleep innovation'.

The flood-tide of innovation is upon us: how are we to use and direct it, rather than be just swept along by it to unknown destinations? What is needed to enable the ordinary teacher, struggling for 90 per cent of his teaching time with daily and strictly local problems, to select, apply and refine the fruits of innovation? On him we all ultimately depend, and he must be protected from confusion or from over-hasty adoption of new methods, materials or content developed elsewhere.

Coordinating the research

First, though research does not necessarily lead to either change or innovation (much has simply confirmed good teachers' hunches), we do need an effectively coordinated programme of both fundamental and action research. Who is qualified to undertake this function it is difficult to say, as is the precise nature of the task; but the present system, under which a would-be research director applies hopefully to one agency after another until either one succumbs or hope is exhausted, is frustrating and wasteful. A parallel need is for a wider understanding, when research proposals are under consideration, of the fact that findings of practical value from fundamental research, whether psychological, medical, sociological or pedagogic, cannot be guaranteed; this is the nature of such research. It does, of course, render it all the more important at consideration stage strictly to examine proposals and their likely relationships to other projects, and to ensure that they fit an overall pattern of research. Child growth, behaviour, learning processes and personality characteristics fall into this field. Action research is a different story. Provided that the area of study is carefully selected and the programme planned in consultation with teachers and the other professionals concerned, there are bound to be at least local practical effects from almost any action research. An example was the centrally financed Educational Priority Area Project directed by Dr. Halsey described in his report *Priority*;[1] this had immediate effect in the project schools and communities where it was mounted, and in these areas the responsibility for continuing action (though not for further research) has been accepted by the local authorities. Application

[1] HALSEY, A. H. Educational priority: EPA problems and policies. Vol. 1. London, 1972 (HMSO). Price £1·20, by post £1·35.

nationally of the support techniques which it appears to have justified is not by any means guaranteed—partly for the down-to-earth reason that the cost would be very substantial and partly because action research, by its very nature, can never be strictly objective or impartial; it is bound to include a kind of Hawthorne effect which makes many observers reluctant to accept its findings as necessarily of universal application. But there is a problem of follow-up still to be resolved. The evaluation of action research is a difficult problem; but even without it such research can be a powerful stimulus to innovation.

Secondly, well-planned curriculum research and development can certainly benefit the ordinary school. The characteristics of those projects which have led to major and widely acceptable advance are significant—for example, the science and mathematics projects of Nuffield and the Schools Council, the 'Scope' and 'Breakthrough to Literacy' schemes in the field of language and reading competence, or the religious education units from the Primary Committee of the Christian Education Movement. All these have been preceded by careful consideration of the age and ability groups in question and of the relationship of this particular curricular area to others. All have had the services of full-time experienced professionals with valid experience in the classroom and all have secured a major degree of teacher participation in the design, use and evaluation of trial materials, so that the developing documents, materials and policy itself were being constantly modified. In projects such as these the adventurous and the cautiously pragmatic may beneficially combine. Curriculum development of this kind is a significant element in innovation and should certainly continue.

Communication

Thirdly, this is no time for promising developments to be allowed to run to waste. Better communication and dissemination of findings, of subsequent speculation, of invitations to joint enterprises, are badly needed. There is happily no lack of awareness of the commnications need; the Schools Council with *Dialogue*, NFER with its newsletter, the Department with its pamphlets and short courses, LEAs and professional associations with bulletins; periodicals, closed circuit TV networks and conferences are all contributing to a much improved flow of information to schools and teachers. The value of teachers' centres, when they are well used, needs no labouring. Recent tours by the writer of the Midlands and North-East showed in many centres peaks of activity between 4 p.m. and 7 p.m. which testify to the enthusiasm of teachers for learning and for making mutual comparisons of the latest approaches with colleagues from other schools. The idea of several school operating as a group to devise, test and compare experiences has certainly caught on. But with all this there are still great gaps; it is possible to meet teachers who have only the

haziest idea of what the Schools Council is and does, who rarely visit an educational bookshop or exhibition, and to whom i.t.a. is a television authority rather than a reading medium. This is far from being the result, generally, of deliberate neglect; most teachers are keen enough to improve their equipment if they reasonably can, but the effort of search is frequently beyond their resources of energy or time.

Teamwork

Which brings us to a final point. While effective programmes of research and development need to be planned and executed as part of a well-conceived overall plan, their impact on the education of the individual child can only be made by the individual teacher (or team of teachers) in the individual school. It is here that the power has to be harnessed and applied. No staff, of course, should have to rely entirely on its own resources; there are local sources of help. But how is a staff to keep abreast of innovation and development?—to be familiar with the latest books, materials, techniques, research findings, and to winnow from them what is appropriate to its own particular situation? This surely calls for staffs to act as a team; by each member accepting a particular area to cover, perhaps in conjunction with colleagues in neighbouring schools or with local advisory services, by being willing to experiment, not in isolation, but with others in department, year, school or area; to confer, to discuss, to plan together. Every HMI knows the joy of sitting in a staffroom where this outlook prevails, be it over the post-prandial coffee or at a formally convened meeting, and of listening to the flow of concerned, yet often light-hearted, debate; his only regret is that, if he stuck representative pins in a map of his area, there would often still be many wide open areas in it. The leadership of the head, and of key members of staff, is of course crucial; and the growth in the number of short courses on school management and organization testifies to their widespread desire for help.

This article may seem to have stated the obvious; but, if so, the obvious is not yet everywhere accepted. It is frankly written from the standpoint of one who believes that without innovation, and the hopes, doubts and fears that accompany it, schools run a serious risk of becoming fixed and out-dated in their outlook and of failing society. This does not, of course, amount to a plea for innovation at any price. The Inspectorate, with its valued privilege of a bird's-eye view of much that is going on, has throughout this period counselled individual staffs to determine their own criteria and to make their own judgments about innovation. But it is significant that, while standing firm on this principle, it has itself moved steadily into more active participation in promoting innovation and in encouraging others who do. Most of its members would agree with Denys John, who wrote in the April 1973 issue of TRENDS IN EDUCATION: 'Change by itself, unaccompanied

by understanding of the interaction of persons and the rôles they hold, can make a school less effective rather than more'. It is people—both children and adults—who are the vital variables in any school situation. Innovation exists to serve them.

The new evaluation

MALCOLM PARLETT

Malcolm Parlett was formerly a lecturer in the Department of Psychology, University of Edinburgh. He is now involved in an educational research project at Harvard University

The criteria to be met?

Evaluation is on the move. Not only is there a steady expansion in the amount going on, but as a field of education research it is coming under increased critical scrutiny. The level of interest and discussion is high. Curriculum evaluators have met; committees have been formed and funds set aside. Arguments centre in what evaluation aims to do and how best to go about doing it. What has precipitated this rapid spate of activity?

There seem at least three major factors. First, there is the official enthusiasm, both at government and at other levels, for increased accountability and attention to cost-effectiveness. Second, there is an abundance of innovations and alternative curricular schemes in circulation. Increasingly it is troublesome to choose between them: it is like choosing a new refrigerator before the days of *Which?* Both factors encourage and promote evaluation: how do you 'measure benefits' to weigh against the costs? How can you decide on a 'best buy'? The third, and major reason for the new initiatives and questioning stems from a worrying realization about evaluation studies in the past: namely, that they have often been hopelessly inadequate as aids to practical decision-making of any sort. In other words, a situation exists in which there is both demand for the services of evaluators, and scepticism about what they have done in the past.

The Churchill College Conference

This is precisely the climate in which new ideas can germinate and grow rapidly. And this is what is happening. One of the most significant recent developments was a Nuffield-supported conference at Churchill College, Cambridge, in December 1972 at which a small group of 'non-traditional' evaluators, from Britain, the USA, and Sweden, sat down and pooled their experiences. Each was sharply critical of traditional, orthodox evaluation. Each had tried to develop radical alternatives. But before the

Churchill meeting, each had worked in isolation. It had been a case, we discovered, of multiple simultaneous discovery.

The conference (organized jointly by Barry MacDonald — evaluator of the Schools Council Humanities Curriculum Project —and by the author) concentrated both on new developments in research method and theory, and also on how evaluation relates to educational policy. 'Decision-makers' were there in force: representatives from the Centre for Research and Innovation in Education of OECD, from the DES, and from the Nuffield Foundation took an active part. They addressed the problems of evaluation as seen from their perspectives, and intervened whenever the evaluators' constructions began to look too well-oiled and smooth-running.

What characterized the Churchill discussions? What is 'non-traditional' evaluation? What was wrong with 'traditional'? And what sort of evaluation is, in fact, useful for educational decisions, varied and complicated and politically sensitive as so often they are? There were many differences in detail and a lot of constructive argument at the conference. But there was a strong agreement about the basic issues.

The need for change

First, we agreed that conventional styles need to be radically changed: that the predominant evaluation model is inappropriate. It has centred on the idea of 'testing educational effects under controlled conditions': a laudable ambition perhaps, but one that is probably impossible ever to achieve technically, given the nature of educational practice. So many random, unpredicted, and human factors intervene that neat experimental designs cannot contain them all. For this reason, results from such studies rarely carry conviction: they present an emaciated and artificial picture of real-world educational life. The results are usually numerical in form, difficult to mesh with the 'qualitative' view of the world held by most of us. Moreover, differences are often negligible or hedged about with statistical qualifications. To interpret such findings sensibly often means going beyond the formally reported data—using the very type of information that was excluded from the design (because it 'could not be tested scientifically' or because it 'cropped up too late for inclusion in the study').

This basic, experimental model I have referred to elsewhere as the 'agricultural-botany paradigm': appropriate for testing fertilizers on carefully tended fields of crops at agricultural research stations, but inapplicable and incongruous for monitoring how innovations become absorbed and adapted in a diversity of school settings, by teachers with different perspectives, teaching separate and distinctive groups of children.

Second, we found ourselves in substantial agreement about what an alternative model or paradigm should look like. The first obligation upon it was that it should be applicable to situations as

they actually exist; and that no artificial arrangements (such as 'balanced control groups') should have to be incorporated. The second obligation was that it should be reality-based: that it should do justice to the complex and to the atypical, review the curriculum or innovation not in isolation but as it interacts with its context, and study unexpected and unintended consequences as well as those that were planned. The third, and most severe obligation, was that the new model or paradigm should lead to studies that are useful and interesting—what's the good of research reports that are never read?

The view of evaluation we settled on, therefore, had certain characteristics. It should set out not to 'test' so much as to 'understand and document' an innovation—examining its background, its organization, its practices, and its problems, in addition to its outcomes. It should constitute a thoroughgoing and detailed exploration of the innovation-in-action. It should provide, for all concerned with the curriculum or programme, as well as for outsiders, an informed and accurate description of the operation of the scheme, summaries of the various points of view expressed by those associated with it, and a detailed historical-type account of the development of the innovation over time—its teething troubles, success stories, and the improvements devised.

Studies along these lines, we considered, were likely to provide a far more effective and realistic means of helping decision-makers than did evaluations of the old type. They could assist, for instance, in deciding whether a particular innovation is what they want; whether it has done what it set out to do and what aspects of it could be improved, curtailed, modified, or reassessed.

'Illuminative' evaluation

What exactly is entailed in such a type of study? Perhaps this can best be portrayed by referring in greater detail to one of the particular approaches discussed at the Churchill meeting: 'illuminative' evaluation. To quote from a paper describing the mode[1], the aims of illuminative evaluation are to study an innovatory programme: how it operates; how it is influenced by the various school situations in which it is applied; what those directly concerned regard as its advantages and disadvantages; and how students' intellectual tasks and academic experience are most affected. It aims to discover and document what it is like to be participating in the scheme, whether as teacher or pupil, and, in addition, to discern and discuss the innovation's most significant features, recurring concomitants, and critical processes. Generally speaking, there are five different phases of an illuminative evaluation study:

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[1] PARLETT, M. R., and D. F. HAMILTON. Evaluation as illumination: a new approach to the study of innovatory programs. Occasional Paper 9. Centre for Research in the Educational Services (University of Edinburgh).

Stage 1: Setting up the evaluation. Illuminative evaluation constitutes a general strategy, not a detailed research blueprint. Each study evolves separately, uses a different combination of techniques, and serves different functions. The evaluator has to clarify, at the outset, what type of study is being commissioned, and what type of report is envisaged. He has to ensure that there is no ambiguity in the range, scope, character, and status of the study; that those who will be most directly concerned (e.g. head teachers, LEA officials) are properly consulted and informed of the plans; and that the message is got across clearly that the illuminative evaluator is not going to 'inspect' or 'pass judgment on' the scheme, but study it with a view to understanding it as a working system, its processes and its impact. Decisions are made about the size, duration, and overall plan of the study. But there is no detailed pre-specification of 'variables to be included': no closing of research doors before discovering what lies behind them.

Stage 2: Open-ended exploration. This phase is usually one of the longest and most significant. The researcher must familiarize himself thoroughly with the day-to-day reality of the scheme in schools. He gets his feet well and truly wet. He spends a lot of time visiting the participating schools, observing what is going on, listening to teachers and pupils, getting to know each school's particular circumstances, and generally behaving somewhat like a social anthropologist on location—though here he is studying not a village community but a group of schools. During this phase the researcher is receptive to a mass of different information: he listens and observes and becomes 'knowledgeable' about the total scheme. He notes, for instance, how teachers use it, how it fits into long-term departmental curriculum plans, what resources and hidden costs are involved, and what activities and intellectual tasks pupils are asked to perform. His enquiries are not confined to the schools themselves: he will also trace the background, rationale, and history of the curriculum or innovation, how it was set up, accepted by the LEA, and introduced into the schools. He will meet not only teachers and pupils, but advisors, LEA officials, and the originators of the scheme. He will want to know how they see the innovation from their respective points of view. In short, he tries to build as comprehensive a picture as possible.

Stage 3: Focused enquiries. There is no sharp cut-off between Stages 2 and 3. During Stage 2 the researcher is constantly sifting through his experiences, spotting the similarities and differences between view-points expressed (by participating teachers, say, about the suitability of resource materials provided), noting the issues and problems most frequently raised (e.g. possible timetabling difficulties arising from adopting the innovation on a greater scale), and observing recurring classroom events and trends (e.g. the evident enthusiasm of pupils for a particular type of instructional material). Stage 3 begins when these phenomena,

occurrences, or groups of opinions become topics for more sustained and intensive enquiry. The study takes on a more directed and systematic look. Interviews become more focused, observation in classes more selective. Certain forms of pencil-and-paper enquiry may also be introduced. Questionnaires have many faults (e.g. they are impersonal, expensive and difficult to produce, and most people find them a frustrating and trivializing medium for communicating their views); but on occasion they can be useful—e.g. to provide an independent check on findings from interviews. Useful sometimes, too, are conventional tests of achievement and attitude—but, if used, they occupy no privileged position; they represent merely another source of data.

Stage 4: Interpretation. Illuminative evaluation sets out to clarify and interpret: in short, to 'illuminate'. Detailed, accurate, and sensitive reporting is an essential component. But extensive description is not enough. The investigator must organize and order his description, adding interpretative and explanatory comment. By Stage 4 of an illuminative evaluation, the researcher is busy organizing and arranging his data, going back to fill in gaps in his knowledge, weighing alternative interpretations, and already structuring his report. To quote from the same paper: 'The transition from stage to stage, as the investigation unfolds, occurs as problem areas become progressively clarified and redefined. The course of the study cannot be charted in advance. Beginning with an extensive data base, the researchers systematically reduce the breadth of their enquiry to give more concentrated attention to the emerging issues. This "progressive focusing" permits unique and unpredicted phenomena to be given new weight. It reduces the problem of data overload, and prevents the accumulation of a mass of unanalysed material'.

Stage 5: Reporting the study. The outcome of an evaluation study is usually a report. A weak, dull, over-technical, or sloppily written report can sabotage what has gone before, however skilfully the study was conducted. The illuminative evaluator is conscious, throughout his investigation, of his audience or readership. He will ensure that he provides the information that they want to have at their fingertips, that he addresses the issues that concern them, and that he presents his findings in an appropriate format and style. This sensitivity to the needs of the audience must not undermine his autonomy, of course, nor cause him to censor what he has discovered. A safeguard against doing so is that rarely is there a single constituency or audience: the report is likely to be read and to be used by widely different groups, e.g. by administrators, teachers, and the public at large. What is 'uncomfortable' for one group is likely to be a happy vindication for another, and vice versa. It is important to remember, however, that while straight reporting is certainly called for, so is tact and humanity.

First encounters with illuminative evaluation prompt several

different types of question. Some refer to the 'lack of objectivity' and the possibility of research bias. These, of course, are hazards in all social research, however numerical and statistical: take, for instance, how statistical findings are selected for public presentation. The illuminative evaluator finds himself in a similar position methodologically to the anthropologist, historian, or psychiatrist. There is the same necessity for the careful exercise of intelligent human judgement in handling the complex material and evidence encountered. Like them, he makes no apology for doing so. But counter-checking his findings (against the opinions of others or with data accumulated from other sources) for accuracy and consistency, is a crucial part of his activity. If his readers can spot factual errors, he is unlikely to retain their confidence.

A second question is whether such an intensive style of research is suitable for evaluating large-scale curricula or programmes. It certainly can be so adapted, though a good part of any larger sample research will still compromise close-up study of specific school situations. Appropriate enquiry methods and shorter visits can be used for studies in the remainder of the schools.

Third, there is often concern at the supposed lack of emphasis on finding out about 'educational effects'. This is a mis-reading. In fact, finding out the innovation's effects on pupils necessarily lies at the very centre of an illuminative evaluation of a curriculum scheme. It is important to remember that 'learning' is a highly complicated set of experiences, of which 'assimilating content' is only part. People develop habits of study which may become habits of mind; they acquire 'experience'; they are introduced to 'legitimate' knowledge, to conceptions of 'what is stupid' or 'bright' and what constitutes 'good work'. In short, they respond to a total 'learning milieu'. An innovatory scheme does not exist in abstract. Its adoption entails its being absorbed into a pre-existing milieu or context. The scheme and the milieu interact together: pupils respond to both together. Illuminative evaluation aims to elucidate the interaction, and to demonstrate how pupils' educational experiences—widely conceived—are affected by the total learning milieu. It is for this reason that a major portion of the research effort is directed towards exploring the milieu.

The foregoing constitutes a brief, summary introduction to one particular model discussed at the Churchill conference. Like others proposed there, it is still evolving rapidly. There is no shortage of ideas, research opportunities, or problems to grapple with. Before such models can be widely applied we need more experience and more skilled research workers. But as a new direction for curriculum evaluation the portents are good. Not only is the new evaluation likely to contribute to increased understanding of educational innovations—it can also serve as a signpost towards a more pertinent and intellectually exciting educational research.

Open plan and the teacher

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Many would agree that schools of open-plan design can offer educational advantages that single classrooms cannot. But it is perhaps not always sufficiently appreciated that the change from operating by oneself in a single classroom to operating over a larger area and with other teachers is substantial and even fundamental. Teachers therefore need to be most carefully prepared for it.

What might be the results if teachers are not adequately prepared for the change? They can, in their efforts to occupy children not closely supervised, set these children tasks that are time-filling rather than profitable. They may, through some lack of confidence, deliberately limit the curriculum as a whole, placing a great deal of emphasis on the development of the basic skills at the expense of other activities which would not only provide a wider and more balanced programme but could contribute to the development of these same basic skills. In an effort to impose some structure on a fluid situation, they might be reluctant to allow children the spontaneous opportunities they need in the practical and creative areas of the curriculum. Of course, some kind of structure is always necessary—as for instance an appropriate mix of activities so that not too many children are making demands on the teacher at any one time. But other kinds of structure—such as too much time-tabling—can stand in the way of making the most of what *is* included in the curriculum. Sometimes the range of activities will be extended in one direction, only to be limited in another—for example, there may be less reading and listening in open-plan schools, if in conditions not ideal for them these pursuits are competing with other interesting opportunities. And too little account may be taken of the need of the youngest children for close association with one teacher.

What points of organization merit particular attention if teachers are to exploit to the full the buildings of open-plan design?

It seems that most use is made of spaces and teachers and adult helpers where some deliberate rhythm of organization is developed. The teacher operating singly in a single classroom will operate most successfully where there is such a rhythm: and the further development of such a rhythm where two or more teachers are operating together is essential.

In open-plan units, this rhythm includes groups moving into smaller spaces for such activities as story-reading and discussion while other groups spread out over larger areas, for either general or practical work; and it includes the teachers' arrangement of an

appropriate mix of activities, some not demanding the close supervision of the teacher. Where two teachers only are concerned, the rhythm will often be a simple exchanging of the teaching and supervisory rôles. Where such organization is not developed, spaces are under-used and queues wait for the attention of the teacher. A satisfactory rhythm is more likely to develop where teachers are offering a curriculum of some width. Where teachers concentrate on some aspects of the curriculum and tend to neglect others, then inevitably some spaces are under-used, and other parts of the unit are overcrowded.

It will perhaps be accepted that among the advantages of open-plan design is the fact that, because the various areas in a unit are accessible to all the children in that unit, there is an opportunity for concentrating certain facilities in certain places, and providing in those places a wider range of materials than might be possible in a number of single classrooms. The fullest use is made of shared space when a number of areas, each one identified with some aspects of the curriculum, are created within a unit. It may be worth stressing here that the greater range of materials that open plan makes possible is also *necessary* since good open-plan working will depend on the purposeful employment of a large number of individuals, and only a diversity of materials will make such employment possible.

In larger schools, where extra members of staff are made available, an open-plan unit may attract the services of such a teacher for a substantial proportion of the day or the week. Much careful thought needs to be given to the employment of this extra help. For the sake of coherence, it would not seem to be good practice to employ such help in one or two areas of the curriculum exclusively. If the extra person is involved entirely with one element of the curriculum, then that element will tend to be divorced from the other activities. The result of an extra teacher specializing in art or the practical side of mathematics may be that those elements are separated from the very things they should contribute to and reinforce.

Much the same applies to the use of ancillary helpers and parents. Clearly it is useful to have extra people to work with groups of children, but in the larger space and the more specialized areas that open plan can provide, these people must not be left to operate in isolation. Sometimes in the practical areas they are inclined to do the very things that it is good for the children to do for themselves. And at times their use can bring about an undesirable compartmentalization in the children's daily programme. If the children are regularly sent off to do their cooking or their clay modelling or their painting with a parent or an ancillary helper, these activities will tend to become things apart. The class teachers need to be in constant contact with such activities—on the one hand so that they can develop them in a way no untrained person can, and on the other hand, so that they can seize oppor-

tunities to connect the practical activity with other aspects of the curriculum. The idea of the teacher concentrating on the basic skills while extra helpers look after other aspects of the curriculum could result in a fragmentation to which the single classroom is less vulnerable.

But this is not to say, of course, that use should not be made in open-plan buildings of a teacher's special interests and expertise. One of the advantages of open plan is that these special interests can be made use of without any transferring of groups or teachers to separate areas of the school. But there is still a need for the class teacher to be closely in touch with what goes forward, under the guidance of the teacher with special expertise, so that activities are connected.

As ever, the rôle of the head teacher is vital. And perhaps open-plan units offer head teachers an even greater chance of making an impact on the school by helping in various parts of it. It seems that a head teacher can be more realistically involved in an open-plan unit where he can take charge of, say, a group in one of the activity areas, working in close proximity to a number of assistant teachers. The head teacher can also play a crucial rôle by encouraging and taking part in discussion among teachers, without which the cooperative working of a group of teachers is not likely to succeed. Such discussion is not only essential to the day-to-day working of the system, but it has the advantage of sharpening the thinking of the teachers, and can lead to teachers being even more prepared to change attitudes and broaden their outlook.

Schemes of work are more than ever essential in good cooperative and open-plan working. Aims and objectives and guide lines need to be clearly set down so that they can be studied by all the teachers concerned and used as a basis for discussion among them. And the keeping of records is important too—of a child's development of concepts and skills—and clear and detailed recording would seem to be especially desirable where children in the course of one day will be coming in contact with more than one teacher. What one teacher discovers and notes can have a close bearing on the work of another teacher with the same child.

There is also the need to train the children themselves to work in the open-plan situation—a development not just of independence but of skills which will enable the child to work purposefully for some length of time even when not in direct contact with the teacher. The development of the child's own capacity to work in open-plan conditions is as much as anything the key to success.

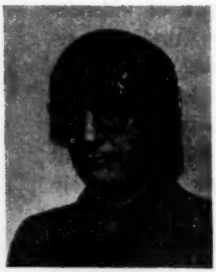
It seems that to operate successfully in an open-plan unit requires more conscious professionalism—more deliberately thought-out organization. This could, it is true, be a natural development of what some teachers have done already in the single classroom, but one suspects that for most it demands a substantial change of approach and attitude. Teachers need to be helped through the period of change.

It is best if new ways of working can evolve slowly and surely, giving the teachers time to adjust to the new circumstances, but if there is little time for such evolution, as when a new open-plan school is opened without the members of staff having previously worked in such circumstances, then they need to attend courses, to visit other schools and discuss what they have seen on their visits. It is a great advantage if the advice they are given and the points they discuss have a direct bearing on the circumstances which will apply to themselves. A course for teachers from a number of schools therefore might be much less effective than the preparation through visit and discussion by the staff of one school. There is a need to train not only the teachers but the ancillary helpers and parents who are to work in open-plan schools.

It might be of considerable benefit to an Authority if it carefully monitored the development of open-plan working in its schools. It might record what progress is made in the schools in the implementing of cooperative teaching, whether teachers are under any particular stresses in open-plan teaching, whether there is staff movement as a result of the introduction of these new methods and, perhaps most important of all, what effect the new methods are having on the quality of education provided and standards achieved. And all the while there should be the closest possible links between teachers, administrators and advisers.

It could well be that open-plan design is paving the way to significant advances in teaching methods which will result in the provision of a better educational process. But the potential will not be fully realized—there may even be retrogression—if preparation and support are not available for the teachers during the time of change.

Changing schools? Changing teachers?



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Change in education is slow. It is best characterized as gradual evolution rather than sudden revolution. It is disturbing and threatening to established attitudes, beliefs and values, and as a consequence is often muted or drastically modified as it comes to take effect in schools. Many recently proposed changes in primary education have been subject to this process—the 'primary school revolution' is less an established fact and more a fervent

hope. This article uses Schon's model of a social system[1] to examine proposed changes in the rôle of the primary school teacher, but what proportion of teachers actually approximate to this pattern is not known. Whether they *should* adopt these changes is a separate question. However, clarity as to what this changed rôle entails is essential before any decision for or against its adoption is made.

Schon views any social system (such as a primary school) as consisting of three major components:

1. *structure*: the set of rôles and relations among individual members.
2. *theory*: the views held within the social system about its purposes, its operations, its environment and its future.
3. *technology*: tools and techniques which extend the human capability of its members.

My focus is on the actions and procedures of the school's teaching force, which constitute the school's 'structure'. This will be examined in the light of current changes in the 'theory' and 'technology' of primary education.

The child supreme

The 'theory' underlying proposed changes takes several forms and does not yet constitute a coherent system. It is ill-formulated and somewhat inconsistent, but in its pure form it asserts the supremacy of the child in the teaching-learning situation. In the words of the Plowden Report 'At the centre of the educational process lies the child'. In the learning environment called school the child is to learn how to learn. School is to foster the all-round development of the individual child by creating a 'rich' environment in which he can pursue his own enquiries at his own pace and in his own style. He is to be given the time and the encouragement to explore, to discover and follow his 'natural' curiosity. He is to be given as much responsibility as possible to determine the course of his own learning, even if this means pursuing some dead-ends. The emphasis is on discovery and first-hand experience with the immediate and the concrete as a basis for gradual concept development. The 'theory' stresses the means of knowing rather than what is known—in Bruner's terms, the process, not the product. 'Play is the child's work', 'the child is the agent of his own learning', 'the child creates his own curriculum'. These three slogans catch the essence of the 'theory' in its pure form.

Technology hard and soft

Though in practice impossible to separate from 'theory', 'technology' (according to Schon) can be considered as either 'hard' or

[1] SCHON, D. Beyond the stable state. London, 1971 (Temple Smith).

'soft'. The former comprises physical materials. Underlying current developments in junior school education is the concept of a school open and flexible in design. Such a physical structure has a variety of areas, some specialized (e.g. a 'wet area'), some shared for general work purposes and some constituting 'home bases' for groups of children each with their own teacher. Portable, multi-purpose furniture and movable screens add to the flexibility of the building. Other aspects of 'hard' technology include plentiful supplies of books and structured apparatus and a variety of individually operated aids to learning such as teaching machines, cassettes, etc.

Schon regards 'soft' technology as including organizational arrangements, techniques and programmes planned by members of the social system. The integrated curriculum is the most important 'soft' element in promoting informal learning. It allows for that 'wholeness' of experience much avowed by child-centred theorists. In this sense, the curriculum is not so much a definitive list of learning experiences to be gone through but more an indication of opportunities and ideas to pursue. The integrated day, vertical grouping and unstreaming are all organizational arrangements designed to foster this informal learning. Team-teaching, co-operative teaching and the use of ancillary staff and parents are also among current developments. Discovery learning and opportunities for creative work are essential aspects of school programmes. Both 'hard' and 'soft' technologies are of great importance in implementing the 'theory' but far less crucial than the teachers themselves. In those schools where the 'theory' has been most fully realized, the rôle of the teacher has undergone very radical changes. It lacks many of the reference points which were firmly embedded in the traditional system of class-based instruction. Much of the knowledge and many of the skills traditionally transmitted are regarded as problematic rather than as fixed. There is a shift in power and influence from the teacher towards the pupils. The teacher is there to guide the individual learner and to act as a catalyst in sparking off his interests through the creation of learning situations and the provision of a warm supportive relationship. The teacher is *still* responsible for promoting learning but now more subtly and indirectly. He *still* has to evaluate pupils' work and attitudes, but the great difference is the absence of universally accepted criteria for judging academic progress. This makes the teachers' evaluation more liable to distortion by personal and social class factors. The teacher *still* transmits values, especially those of independence, curiosity and individualism, but these are not paraded obviously. They lie embedded in the way children are encouraged to spend their time, in the way the teaching area is arranged and especially in the way praise is dispensed.

Personal leadership rather than institutional leadership is stressed. The teacher is no longer the authoritative source of wisdom, though some children will continue so to regard him. He has to create a more affective relationship with his pupils in order

to 'meet their needs' and promote their interests. This closer relationship between adult and child, coupled with the increased prominence given in class to the latter's private experience outside school, has dangers since it could lead to a particularly insidious form of adult control. The child is vulnerable too in that he has few fixed points. Time, space and his own learning experiences are very open and he may find it difficult to assess how he is progressing relative to others especially in a vertically grouped class. He is even more dependent on his teacher in this respect than in the traditional set-up. The 'theory' assumes no conflict between teacher and pupils, but a degree of conflict is inevitable. Even in the most progressive of state schools children are compelled to attend, whether they feel like it or not. They are still expected to heed the 'guidance' of the teacher; they are apparently 'free' but only 'free' to do those things of which adults approve; and they have to obey the adult-regulated time-schedule for such things as assembly, lunch, hall periods and hometime.

Problems for the teacher

The teacher's rôle has always been unspecific but with new developments this diffuseness is even more marked. The teacher is now expected to be responsible for the overall, all-round development of *each* child in his group—an almost impossible task. This diffuseness and the lack of firm reference points outlined earlier pose major problems: What constitutes 'guidance'? How far should children be 'free' to develop? How much responsibility for their own learning should they take? How much do they want? When does teacher delegation become abdication? Just what concepts are children expected to acquire? The difficulty of meeting the theory's vaguely expressed expectations probably induces considerable rôle-strain, though research has still to be conducted on this.

As with the boundary between teacher and taught, other boundaries have become blurred. In an open-plan school the teacher is no longer isolated from his colleagues. He spends much of his time working 'publicly' with individuals or small groups in shared areas, and he rarely 'performs' in front of his own class away from other members of staff. This increased visibility could lead to teachers developing less idiosyncratic teaching styles so that, paradoxically, teacher individuality is diminished as child individuality is encouraged. Increasingly, cooperative teaching is being encouraged. This serves to break down teacher autonomy and can lead to inter-staff conflict unless carefully managed. Here the teacher has to *achieve* a rôle relative to his colleagues. In such teams semi-specialization may develop, possibly partly as a prop to teacher identity threatened by rôle diffuseness.

The home-school boundary is also being crossed more frequently. Teacher-parent relations have been marked by a reduction in isolation and social distance. Partnership is stressed, with

the teacher as liaison-agent and in some contexts even social worker. This represents yet another extension to an already diffuse rôle. The increased importance attached to the home, plus parents' lack of knowledge and experience of new developments, make a conflict of expectations more likely than in the past, despite attempts at informing parents or involving them in the life of the school.

The headteacher-teacher relationship is also softened considerably. Instead of being regarded mainly as the 'boss', the head is increasingly viewed as a manager and facilitator who provides material and emotional support for his staff. He is regarded as the leader of a team, with much greater stress being placed on securing and maintaining inter-personal cooperation. Nevertheless he cannot shed his evaluative and supervisory activities completely. The work of his staff has still to be coordinated and their performance assessed for purposes of promotion or guidance. In many ways, these aspects of his rôle are, paradoxically, made easier by the 'public' character of teaching in open-plan structures.

How much change?

The 'theory', 'technology' and 'structure' underlying current developments have been accepted wholeheartedly by a number of junior schools. The model presented forms the current orthodoxy of primary school reform, but the extent to which junior schools as a whole are accepting the model is open to doubt. Very recently, qualifications have begun to creep in. Teachers are being asked to clarify their objectives, projects have been set up to outline the skills and concepts which children should be acquiring, more detailed planning of mathematics and reading is being advocated by HMIs and even class lessons are seen to have their uses. Some view such proposals as a much-needed tightening-up of current developments, others see them as unduly limiting the initiative of teacher and child.

However, many schools have yet to attempt implementation of current developments in a pure or modified form. Innovation of this basic kind is almost bound to produce resistance from individuals and conflict and instability in institutions. The administrative aspects of change are comparatively easy to effect: behavioural change is far more difficult. If the teacher is to act more as a catalyst than as an instructor, it is not surprising that many people view this as a fundamental denial of their cherished beliefs and attitudes towards teaching. In some schools the rôle of the teacher and headteacher will doubtless change radically, but in others the temptation will be to accept the form of change but not the substance. This temptation should be resisted. Research findings, curriculum development projects and in-service training should all be used to aid teachers in their task of assessing the advantages and disadvantages of proposed changes. Teachers' final decision should be a professional one, dictated not by fashion nor by backlash, but by conviction borne of reasoned argument and discussion.

A sixth form college and its aims*

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When, in 1967, we began to implement our part of the Southampton reorganization scheme, namely the sixth form college with 'open access', we had no blueprint on which to work, since open access had not been tried elsewhere. Judging from our experiences at Southampton Girls' Grammar School, when from 1964 entry qualifications for the sixth form had been dropped, we knew that those who would want sixth form education would fall broadly into two categories: first, those who knew clearly what they intended to do and were looking for suitable qualifications or who enjoyed academic studies and wished to continue with them; secondly, those who had no clear idea of what they wanted and so would benefit from using the sixth form time to help them to discover where their interests lay; this group would also contain girls of academic bent. To cater for the second group, a sixth form college organization must be as flexible as possible so that, as and when a girl's objectives become clarified, she has the opportunity to modify, or even to change completely, her programme of work. Such a concept demands great flexibility in time-tabling and, even more fundamental, in staff attitudes and teaching methods. Because the teaching staff believes that it is of paramount importance to cater for the needs of the individual its members willingly help a girl change her direction.

Theoretical considerations

Many people have seen the growing restiveness of young people in the 16–19 age group and their resentment of what they consider to be the unnecessarily narrow restrictions imposed by the school environment. One of the main criticisms made of the proposal to put this group into a separate educational community was that it might increase such restiveness and irresponsibility. It was held that they would lose the advantages of leadership and of developing responsibility through taking some measure of direction for the discipline of the younger children in an 11–18 community. I believe this criticism is based upon an out-of-date concept of the

* The Southampton College for Girls which is described in this article had 573 students in the year 1972–73. Thirty-six were in their third year. Courses leading to A level GCE examinations are offered in 34 subjects. Students may also take O level, CSE (mainly mode 3) and other examinations. A wide range of non-examination work is done in minority time and in common studies (taken by *all* students).

world outside school and one which takes no account of the earlier maturity and independence of young people, both of which are now recognized by such acts as the lowering of the age of majority. Before reorganisation, we had discovered that our sixth form entrants from the 12–16 schools had already benefited from being leaders in that community and, as a result, they were usually more mature and assured than the girls who, coming up with us in an 11–18 school, had not had such opportunities at 15–16. From 16 onwards, it is, I think, more important that girls should be looking ahead towards the adult community of which they are already becoming a part. They should learn, at this stage, how to cope with themselves, to live with their contemporaries, to understand them and their reactions, and to work with and to understand the older people with whom they come into contact. They are not going into a world in which they are going to be leaders of immature, less-developed people; if they are going to hold positions of some authority, they will have to be able to wield those powers by gaining voluntary cooperation.

Work and self-discipline

Experience has shown us that the majority of young people do not really want to interpret 'freedom' as licence to do as they wish, according to the whim of the moment. They want an ordered community in which to work—but they want to have a part in the ordering of it, to know what is going on and why it is happening. They are very willing to accept guidance when it is accompanied by reasoned argument and discussion. From the beginning, we stress that ours is a 'working' institution and, though we may give every opportunity for girls to change their minds about their ultimate objectives, we shall expect them to work. When, for example, one of the senior girls (herself, incidentally, a lively, hard-working student) said that she didn't see why a girl shouldn't do entirely as she liked with her free time and should be able to waste it if she so chose, I agreed, but pointed out that it was also our professional duty to point out to that girl that she *was* wasting it and was wasting our efforts, too, and even to suggest that it might be better if she went. Our task is to help a girl to find her commitment, not to aid her in evading it. This is the time during which self-responsibility must be developed, and habits of work, as well as enjoyment of it, are formed. It is a period of trial and error —not always recognized at once by the girls themselves. On one occasion, representatives of the Second Year came to me to say that they did not think the First Years should have the three periods of home study, which all girls are allowed in their timetables. They thought that First Years only wasted this time; Second Years alone knew how to use it properly. I merely asked how the Second Years had found out how to use it. They murmured that they saw what I meant—and the issue has never since been raised.

Self-government

At this stage, I should outline very briefly the form of self-government which has evolved since 1967. There is a small executive of 16 or so girls made up of elected representatives from each year group. Elections are run by the executive along formal lines, with a secret ballot. Executive itself elects its Chairman and Vice-Chairman and either chooses from its members or coopts its Secretary and Treasurer.

Executive is constantly accountable to college for its actions. On the time-table one period each week is set aside for college business, though it need not be regularly used for such. The Chairman conducts the meeting. She asks that matters to be raised should, if possible, be brought to the executive beforehand, so that information may be gathered to prevent the wasting of time in what may be unnecessary discussion or that particular members of staff may be asked to be present to join in. Girls accept the presence of any staff wishing to go to the meetings, for, if the college is to be a unity, then *all* its members must be able to question and answer on equal terms; occasionally, however, girls may hold meetings in 'closed' sessions, as staff have staff meetings on similar lines. If I go, it is usually to give some clarification of a point raised previously and I stay for that only. From time to time, I ask to raise issues of general educational interest, in order to get the college's reactions to them. We have had, for example, most illuminating discussions of the Schools Council's proposed changes in the examination system.

No power is complete without some control of finances. The girls have a proportion (decided by them) of their contribution to college funds to use as they wish and, of course, they determine what shall be done with any money they raise by the discos, dances, and so on, which they organize. Some of the liveliest discussions at general meetings are about what they shall do with such money. They have their own bank account; cheques are signed by the treasurer and a member of staff, who advises on the keeping of accounts and helps in keeping continuity in this important area. From time to time, the executive meets with me for purely informal discussion.

In the sixth form of the grammar school, one could expect the large majority to be like-minded young people, all eager to be 'up and doing' to set the world to rights. Thinking they were completely representative of their generation in this, they believed it was the older generation alone that was apathetic or lacking in understanding. In the comprehensive sixth form college, they are surprised to find that many of their own generation are equally content to 'let things ride'. It also is a good lesson to discover that the seemingly apathetic may well make themselves heard quite quickly and strongly when matters touch them more nearly.

A sense of belonging

The general meeting and form of self-government adopted play

their part in creating a feeling of community, something critics said would be almost impossible to achieve in an establishment with so brief a life-span. We have found little or no evidence of girls finding difficulty in achieving a sense of belonging. Visitors, in the entertaining of whom the girls have a full share, have commented upon the community atmosphere they have sensed either when talking to the college as a whole or to individual students. Of course, this is due partly, no doubt, to the girls' consciousness of taking part in something relatively new and experimental and to their wish to make it succeed, but it also springs from the fact that they come to us from choice. Then, too, those who have been at the college for a year, during which they have found out what it is about, are ready to welcome newcomers and to help them to take advantage of their opportunities. 'Belonging' does not, and cannot, come about by *our* attempting to enforce loyalties to a closed community by such means as, for example, invoking a team spirit or trying to insist that their duties are to use their skills and talents primarily in undertakings sponsored by the college. Instead, we encouraged them to be outward-looking, praising their achievements in fields and in groups to which they are already committed and bringing their successes to the knowledge of the college. In their studies, they are given considerable opportunity for experience outside college, too; this includes a week in offices for intending secretaries, regular teaching observation, coaching of younger children who are given the use of our playing fields, horticultural and veterinary experience, etc. etc.

Concern for the individual

The rôle of the individual in the community, though important, is only part of our concern for the individual herself—our first concern at all times. In this period of rapidly growing self-awareness and self-evaluation, we should try to help each girl towards a proper estimation of herself. Self-criticism is encouraged, but not self-deprecation. From the beginning, we make it clear that we do not promise success in the achievement of an ambition; we offer only opportunities and help. It is better for a girl to find out for herself what she is capable of doing. This does not mean that laissez-faire is our policy. We must attempt to see that her decisions are made upon due consideration of all circumstances, full information and an understanding of the various consequences likely to follow. A minor illustration concerns examination entries. Each candidate discusses her entries with me; I may advise, but she eventually decides, sometimes after further consultations with staff and at home, what she shall attempt. I have found the decisions usually reasoned and sensible.

Concern for the individual extends, of course, to personal problems. Friendly and pleasant though our relationships with sixth formers in the grammar school were, we have found them remarkable for their ease and naturalness in the sixth form college, where

girls coming in at 16 see us and accept us from the beginning as people; their attitude is not inhibited by earlier authoritarian teacher-pupil relationships. Privileges proper for this age-group do not have to be restricted because of the difficulties that might be caused by the presence of younger children. Opportunities to talk informally and to discuss problems occur often and naturally. Form groups (mainly for administrative matters) are small—usually 12 to 15 in number—and contact with the form teacher is informal.

Staff and students

Each girl also has a tutor. Girls themselves name two or three members of staff from whom they would like their tutor to be chosen. There are no set times for meeting with tutors; we think informal contacts produce easier relationships, and times for fuller discussions can be arranged for free or out-of-college time.

The staff take their work as tutors seriously and, in spite of the extra demands it makes upon them, enjoy the work and get to know the girls in their charge very well. The reports they and subject-staff make upon the girls for reference purposes, for example, prove this knowledge and refute the opinion that we have girls for too short a time to be able to make any useful comments upon them for university or college forms or for similar requirements.

This staff-student relationship, depending as it does upon close and quick link-ups, would be more difficult to establish in a community much larger than ours. On the other hand, if we were coeducational, to give to the girls all the subject choices and courses catering for their special needs, as we do now, then the coeducational college would need to be nearly twice as large, thus making the concern for the welfare of the individual less easy (one educational reason for supporting the existence of a single-sex college in an area where an LEA has facilities to provide choice between single-sex and coeducational colleges). We do not operate as an entirely self-contained, single-sex, narrow age-range community, however. Where mixed teaching groups have obvious teaching value (e.g. in Ordinary level drama classes) and in out-of-college activities such as music and drama, we have close cooperation with the neighbouring boys' college.

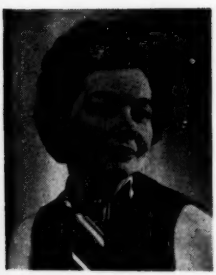
When we say that we are extending sixth form study opportunities to a wider ability range, what exactly are the features of the grammar school sixth form we wish to extend? What, I think, made sixth form experience so valuable was, first and foremost, that a girl worked with a small group, all there having chosen the subject for interest or for its relevance to their objectives. Through discussion and through wide background reading, they learned to evaluate, to make judgments, to study cause and effect, to use their studies as starting points for their own thinking. This is 'study in depth'—but such an approach need not be confined to Advanced level studies only; it can be done at any level, provided the group is small

enough for individual guidance and the easy interchange of ideas.

The best sixth form experience does *not* mean the amassing of facts to be regurgitated in an acceptable form in public examinations. Neither is a teacher's task, least of all with this age-group, to 'complete' with the student any stage of education; it is his or her privilege to keep curiosity alive and to encourage a girl to believe that learning is a continuing process. We have extended our own ideas of success far beyond good examination results — and the girls are learning to do so, too. They recognise the value of gifts and talents not necessarily academic. Incidentally, it has proved a valuable intermediate stage between the special school and work for physically handicapped girls, helping them to integrate easily and naturally with the community.

A truly comprehensive organization gives increased opportunities to the *whole* ability-range; the most able have more subject-choice and, seeing themselves against the wider range, learn to appreciate the extent of their own ability and so to develop it. Certainly those girls who go on to areas in which young people are often restless and critical seem to be a little more adult than many of their contemporaries, regarding them with tolerance, even, perhaps, a little amusement. They say they have gone through such experiences and they wish to approach situations positively. We hope that our institution has helped them a little in doing precisely that.

Innovation in further education



PAULINE PERRY

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A head of department in an FE college was asked recently: 'If you had free choice, what would you like to see happen in your department in the next few years?' Spontaneous and heartfelt, his reply was: 'Nothing new at all for at least five years'. An understandable reply. But innovation is not just change and growth (of which there has been much). Most of the changes in colleges during this period have happened because of outside pressure. There have been tremendous organizational changes, but no evidence to show that these have been reflected by simultaneous changes in the staffroom and classroom. Innovation, in educational terms, means planned development, initiated by the profession for educational reasons, not merely as a response to external factors.

Orchestrating change

The diffusion rate of externally initiated educational change has

been the subject of detailed research. The American sociologist P. R. Mort devised a 'curve of diffusion' for educational innovations in the 1930s which has been demonstrated by research in the 1960s to have accelerated to almost 20 times its previous rate. These measurements, however, were taken on factors like the purchase of language laboratories, engaging teacher-aides, purchase of new curriculum project materials and so on. There is evidence that the true implementation of these new ideas at classroom level cannot as easily be taken for granted.

Neal Gross, studying in depth the process of attempted innovation in one educational institution, makes the important distinction between the 'initiating' stage of innovation and the far more difficult 'implementing' stages of the process, in which new behaviour, skills, and attitudes are required of the people involved. His study and other earlier studies indicate that changes in teaching method and classroom relationships can only take place if there is close support and 'feedback', on-the-job and in the classroom, from colleagues.

The demand for growth and organizational change, to which colleges have responded so magnificently, may well, indeed, have discouraged them from experiment in teaching method and curriculum development on the scale that has been seen in schools. When so much effort is required to cope with constant change, lecturers and senior staff have possibly felt an above-average reluctance to give up old and familiar methods of teaching. Equally, when staff feel that they must develop courses or perish, they may be forgiven for looking for ways to piece together existing courses into new combinations whenever possible. One senior member of a polytechnic recently described course development as 'the new religion' of FE: and indeed at all levels there is a constant laudable desire to meet demand with instant provision. Neither industry nor education, though, can afford the *ad hoc* nature of this kind of provision indefinitely. Although new national certificates and diplomas and new courses from the City and Guilds of London Institute have flowed into the colleges, these have not always resulted in a real implementation of their initiators' intentions. The basic widespread hard thinking about total curriculum development in response to both student need and industrial adanvce is still very slow in happening.

Recently, moreover, colleges of further education have found themselves the centre of unusual attention, as exponents of the kind of education for 16–19 year olds where staff and student body have by their very nature close and strong links with the adult productive society. Inevitably, further education may find itself being asked to become a focus for experiment and innovation in the educational provision for this age group. A confidence in its own innovative process could well soon become imperative.

Satisfying the conditions

The right kind of innovation then, must meet two criteria: first, it must be appropriate to the demands of industry, society and the educational institutions concerned: second, it must be implemented widely at the level of classroom practice and staffroom behaviour.

How can we provide conditions for these criteria to be met? We have, I am sure, been right in further education to feel a suspicion of bandwagons and change for change's sake. What this sector has, however, been less able to do well is to provide its own internal 'sounding board', capable of judging what new ideas and ways are fitting to the needs of industry as well as to the educational needs of the students. Such a 'sounding board' implies a body of people with expert professional knowledge and confidence, able to judge for themselves what is the right direction for innovative experiment. The ideal 'professional' in FE, however, has a double identity. He must maintain a level of professional identity with the occupation or profession from which he came, but at the same time must be able to feel a sense of competence in making educational judgements about the needs of students and the resources and requirements of educational institutions.

The double professional identity of the FE lecturer is not, of course, unique. A secondary school teacher sees himself as, for example, both historian and teacher or modern linguist and teacher. The strains within an FE lecturer's double identity are perhaps more extreme as they span more diverse cultures, and the need for support is therefore more urgent. Professional bodies and industry already provide a very substantial service of in-service training to FE staff—in one London borough more than half the courses attended by lecturers in a two-year period were provided either by professional bodies or directly by industrial training facilities. Links with the relevant industry are not always, however, so well maintained. Employers at an FE/industry conference recently complained bitterly of the apparent lack of real interest shown by some college departments in the industries they serve. Visits of substantial length to industrial or commercial concerns are still too rare. A 'professional' identity should rest on more than fading memories.

Professional identity and support

The maintenance of an up-to-date knowledge of industry, though, is balanced by the need for a strengthening of identity within the teaching profession. Innovation in FE cannot be either appropriate or effective unless each lecturer receives adequate professional support in his teaching job. This means that each college must take very seriously the way in which a new member of staff is inducted into his new profession; they must also take very seriously the kind of on-the-job help given by colleagues and senior members of the department. Many colleges have already charged specific members of staff with 'professional tutor' kinds

of duties. Even this, however, is not a substitute for the implementation within departments of a policy for the full development of the talents and abilities of every member of staff. This policy will include a first-hand knowledge on the part of senior members of staff of training needs. This in turn implies classroom visits (lecturers cannot call themselves professional until they allow their fellow professionals access to their performance, and until they share their expertise and experience). It implies also a readiness to discuss openly with staff their personal professional goals, and a willingness to provide appropriate training, as well as human and material resources, for the maximum possible development of each individual's professional teaching skill.

Equally important, if innovation is to be implemented, a great deal of real support for staff is required, to help them with the development of new methods and skills. A much more careful matching of human resources to educational tasks must be undertaken. Effective change goes beyond the purchase of new equipment and materials. Research evidence shows, indeed, that effective change in education must go beyond the initial enthusiasm for, and commitment to, new ideas on the part of staff. Unless the initial enthusiasm is followed by an ongoing programme of help and professional support while the ideas are put into practice, no lasting implementation of those ideas can take place.

Lecturers can, and should, be encouraged to carry out and assess innovation within their own classrooms and institutions. They should not, though, be asked to undertake radical changes without mutual and strong professional support, a realistic confidence in their own professional judgement, and sensitive and constructive advice from senior colleagues.

Within the frame of this sort of professional climate, it should not be impossible to develop a careful dissemination and implementation of appropriate innovation in the structure, curriculm and teaching relationships of further education.

Changing the curriculum: an exercise in partnership

TONY LIGHT

Tony Light is Joint Secretary of the Schools Council

In this country curriculum development is essentially a collaborative exercise reflecting the partnership and sharing of responsibility that characterize our system. Although the roots of curriculum change lie in the response of the system to the growth of knowledge, the changing social patterns and the increased understanding of the individual's needs, the location of innovation may be more elusive, often springing from the happy coincidence of the right people being together at the right time. Fortune may thus play its part, but the sustained improvement of our schools requires a more systematic approach by teachers, local education authorities, universities and central government. The curriculum development movement of the last 10 years epitomizes the search for purpose, coherence and partnership without losing that freedom of action which is open to the schools.

The desire for improvement does not of course date from the '60s. Particularly since the war and the 1944 Act, both national and local government have sought to extend and develop the service. Most significantly many local education authorities showed imagination and leadership in making educational advances through the better design of school buildings, the development of primary and secondary education and the deployment of advisory staff. Then as now the leadership provided by chief education officers was a vital factor for change, matched by the initiative and vision of many head teachers and staffs. But progress was variable by current standards; teachers and schools were then much more isolated than they are now. Although HMI and the universities were active in providing training courses, ideas were unsystematically diffused. There was no central machinery for coordinating and sharing experience or for initiating national curriculum development in response to the growing knowledge explosion.

Some initiatives

Two particular initiatives were significantly to affect the scene. First, the Nuffield Foundation undertook the funding of curriculum development in secondary science, then in primary science and mathematics, languages and humanities. Its characteristic style of working, through research and development projects involving many teachers, was to become the model for subsequent work undertaken by the Schools Council. Second, in 1962, the

Curriculum Study Group was set up within the Ministry of Education to consider the question of curriculum reform. The latter was to be quickly overtaken by the discussions involving representatives of all the educational interests—teachers, local education authorities, the universities—which led to the subsequent establishment of the Schools Council in 1964. The question was one of giving 'form and shape to a genuine partnership between the various agencies concerned, which would increase the speed and relevance of curriculum development and base it more soundly on an increased volume of research, without in the process surrendering or even endangering what is essential to a free society in our tradition of freedom for the teachers in curriculum matters'. (D. Morrell, address to NFER, 1963).

The Schools Council on assuming the functions of the Secondary Schools Examinations Council was given grants by central and local government to undertake research and development in the curriculum, carrying on the work begun by Nuffield and determining an expanding programme in relation to the basic subjects of English language, mathematics, science and humanities.

During the past 10 years the Council has chosen to work principally by funding research and development projects, proposed by individuals and institutions, or commissioned as a result of identifying a specific area of need.

Research and development projects have varying objectives. Some seek to revise content and make new knowledge more relvant to the schools' curriculum. Others investigate pupils' learning processes. Yet others examine the relationship between subjects or suggest interdisciplinary modes of organizing content and learning. In varying degree, all are concerned for the rôle of the teacher in new curricular settings. Most projects comprise small full-time teams drawn largely from schools and universities, and located in schools of education, colleges of education or with local authorities. They have a limited life of two, three or more years. Their programmes of research and development invariably involve close links with schools and teachers, and this is the most important distinguishing characteristic of the English style of curriculum development.

By these means, ideas are tested in a variety of classroom settings by project staff and teachers. Both groups contribute to their evaluation and the subsequent possible modification of materials and methods. Not all projects produce materials, nor do they all use trial schools exclusively. Some projects have chosen to work through teachers' groups, meeting on a regular basis to discuss more general issues relating to the aims or content of the curriculum, and producing at the end a considered report or working paper. From its inception the Council promoted those supporting functions which it thought would facilitate curriculum development during the projects' trials, and subsequently when the results were to be disseminated. One of the foremost agencies

for involving teachers has been the network of teachers' centres. These grew out of the work of the Nuffield mathematics and science programmes, when LEAs were asked to establish workshops where teachers could meet to be trained, to experiment and to construct materials. Since that time, centres have grown in number and diversity. All of them are provided by the LEAs, and while the Council has encouraged their establishment, they are essentially local in character and are seen, rightly, as belonging to the teaching profession. Wardens of teachers' centres are quick to stress their purely advisory rôle; and this democratic spirit is often reflected in the management of centres, where teachers are responsible for the programmes, although the LEAs provide the facilities.

The contribution of the local authorities to the Council's work is very great. In addition to the pooled contribution to central funds, they provide, through their advisory teams, the local means whereby trials and development can take place. They allocate extra resources, and arrange the release of teachers, in-service programmes, and professional support in the schools, as part of or in addition to their own programmes of development. For although the Council's activities have been widespread and well publicized they represent *only a small part* of the whole movement, based on schools, and within local authorities.

Growth and expansion

Our long tradition of autonomy has led teachers to look for solutions to their own classroom problems and to compile materials which suit their own needs in addition to using published sources. The reorganization of schools, and the raising of the statutory leaving age have been used by school staffs to reframe their curricula and to extend the range of learning opportunities. Even schools unaffected in this way have been challenged by the growth of knowledge and by the changing expectations and attitudes of society, parents and pupils. There has been an enhanced responsiveness to the personal and social needs of pupils expressed in improved arrangements for pastoral care, guidance and counselling. Not only has the formal programme been enriched beyond measure, but the proliferation of clubs, societies, theatre visits, music-making, sport and recreation indicates a dramatic expansion of the notion of curriculum. Added to all this is the shift towards professional openness and the desire for refresher courses indicated in the demands for in-service education. Comparable initiatives have been shown by local education authorities, in the design of buildings and furniture, in the provision of ancillary staff, in the development of specialized services for particular groups of pupils such as immigrants or the handicapped, in the expansion of resources from libraries, museums and art galleries. Standards of provision for science, home economics, and technology have been raised; oppor-

tunities for fieldwork and outdoor pursuits have been created; in-service courses in schools, teachers' centres, colleges and universities have been organized; extra resources for curriculum development have been allocated. Such qualitative improvements have been a marked feature of the recent growth of the service. An outstanding example of the many instances of collaboration between teachers, schools, local education authorities and a university was the North West Curriculum Development Project. With Schools Council support, the local authorities established Curriculum Development Centres, arranged for the release of teachers, and appointed Centre leaders who worked as a team under the leadership of Dr. Rudd of Manchester University. This project, introduced to prepare for the raising of the statutory leaving age, enabled hundreds of teachers to come to grips with development issues and created a climate of innovation in which national projects can thrive.

The last decade has therefore been a period of considerable expansion and proliferation of curriculum development at central and local level. The incidental and tangible outcomes of this activity include the establishment of over 500 teachers' centres, the greatly increased volume of in-service training, and the considerable broadening of curricular choice in the schools. Most significant has been the striking involvement of teachers in all this work, not least in the field of examinations and improved assessment. But has this period produced better schooling? Have change and innovation brought improvement? Here we may be less sure. For although independent and rigorous evaluation has been applied to some of these activities the conclusions are tentative. In some cases specific improvements in pupils' understanding have been recorded but generally the complex nature of the process in classroom, school, local authority or national project is not readily susceptible to traditional forms of assessment. Dependence on teachers' judgement still prevails.

Some conclusions

Nevertheless, some conclusions can be drawn from the experience of curriculum development undertaken so far. First, there can be a considerable gap of mutual misunderstanding between the teacher and the curriculum developer whose ideas are sometimes seen as impractical, vague and irrelevant. These criticisms are not necessarily overcome through interaction with teachers but they appear less strong where there has been either some opportunity for participation in the production of new materials or in training courses for those staff who are to implement the projects' ideas. But project teams are invariably small and quite unable to meet the demands for such involvement and training. Nor can they meet the wider and frequently inflated expectations which are built up when a project is established. There is a pressing requirement to develop that manpower which can relate

research and curriculum theory to practical classroom settings and encourage the teachers' confidence in applying research and development with understanding and critical judgement. It could be argued, as it has been by the Schools Council Working Party on Dissemination, that greater involvement of a larger number of teachers in the process of curriculum development would contribute to meeting this goal. Logistically, this may not prove feasible, though there would be merit in the production of case studies of projects which helped teachers to 'get under the skin' of a project's activities and appreciate, if only vicariously, some of the struggles which have taken place.

The second conclusion is that curriculum innovation is a slower, more difficult, more stressful, more threatening and more complex process than was previously realized. Evidence from agriculture, where at least there should be tangible evidence of growth, indicates the almost unbelievable length of time that ensues before any innovation can be regarded as accepted. In the field of education we should not be surprised that change comes less quickly than the radicals would like. But resistance springs not merely from a conservative attitude. To change the content and style of teaching involves the risk of failure and the cost of time and energy in mastering new knowledge and skills, at a time when uncertainties abound within and beyond the education service. The question of building up the teacher's confidence is crucial.

The complexity of the process is manifest in the school in varying degree and demonstrated most acutely in the development of interdisciplinary or integrated programmes. When innovations using these approaches are combined with mixed ability grouping or team-teaching strategies then the strains on the schools and their staffs can be considerable. A better understanding of the problems associated with innovation in the school setting could lead to the more effective management of change. Equally complex is the network of activity and support which develops outside the school. An increasing awareness of its significance is evident in the operations of the Schools Council and its projects, so that links are now established with administrators, advisers, centre wardens, subject associations, in-service tutors, publishers and broadcasting. The rationalization of this network and its coordination at local, regional and national level is a matter of priority.

A third and obvious conclusion relates to the matter of values. Innovatory activities in the curriculum are set in the context of debate about its composition, the nature and purpose of schools and schooling, the goals of education. National projects are not insensitive to this aspect of their work; indeed they may be specifically concerned to explore these issues as in the case of Aims of Primary Education or the Middle Years Projects. Nor is the Schools Council aloof from this debate, for through its committees and Council meetings the representatives of member

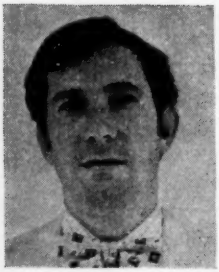
interests seek to reflect the concerns and aspirations of the service. Their discussions involve the consideration of those same questions that face the school and its staff.

In reviewing the progress of curriculum development the function of the school as the arena and instrument of change becomes clearer. National reasearch and development provide new insights, content and ideas but the interpretation and implementation rests with the school. Thus the focus of the supporting network to which the Council contributes is not the project but the school, whose capacity to sustain development is likely to be the critical factor in the whole process of curriculum reform. Arrangements for improving the creative capacity of the school will extend beyond material provision, to include a range of professional services—information, technical, advisory, training—offered within a framework of partnership. To enhance the teachers' choice is a central principle of the School Council's policy, expressed in its terms of reference: 'The objects . . . are to uphold and interpret the principle that each school should have the fullest possible measure of responsibility for its own work with its own curriculum and teaching methods based on the needs of its own pupils and evolved by its own staff; and to seek through cooperative study of common problems to assist all who have individual or joint responsibilities for or in connection with the schools curricula and examinations to coordinate their actions in harmony with this principle'.

The working out of this principle in the context of partnership has led to a level of collaboration previously unknown. It has brought together the many elements of the education service in the pursuit of qualitative improvement of schooling, and produced the basis of a curriculum development system which has the *potential* capacity to initiate and support change at many levels. Can we realise this potential?

A clinical approach to classroom observation: an American view

In several American states some form of teacher evaluation is required by law. The method described in the following article is increasingly being used



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In the United States we are seeing increased emphasis on local school systems establishing improved teacher evaluation procedures. One result seemingly will be an increase in classroom observations by supervisory personnel (assistant principals, principals, supervisors, etc.); and of all the functions that supervisory personnel engage in none is more sensitive to the teacher than classroom visits. Because a number of states have adopted laws requiring teacher evaluation procedures, methods of objectively observing classroom behaviour for the purpose of improving instruction are rapidly becoming a necessity. A process referred to as 'clinical supervision' is one of the methods increasingly being utilized.

The clinical supervision model that follows is a synthesis of ideas, assumptions, and procedures that have been developed by such writers as Morris Cogan, Jerry Bellon, Richard Jones, and Robert Goldhammer.

Also, although the term 'supervisor' is used in this article, the function described could be carried out in each building by the principal, assistant principal, department head, team leader or fellow classroom teachers.

Stage one: pre-observation activities

A number of activities may take place before an actual classroom observation. For example, the supervisor may arrange programmes to explain the clinical process and give a rationale for its use. If the teachers are not utilizing performance objectives, a special training programme in developing appropriate objectives may be necessary. All activities centre in the belief that trust can best be established when teachers know the rationale, assumptions, and procedures of the supervisory programme. This requires the supervisor's best efforts in explaining and clarifying all aspects of the clinical process.

One activity indispensable to classroom observation is an individual conference with the teacher. Surprising the teacher or catching him unprepared should be avoided. The rationale of a pre-observation conference is that it fulfils a number of the following needs:

1. *Relaxation and trust.* Meeting the teacher prior to observing the class helps put the teacher at ease. The supervisor should make every effort to assure the teacher that he is not there to find out if the teacher is a 'good' or 'bad' teacher. The supervisor also assures the teacher that the data gathered will be shared with the teacher after the class. The teacher will have the data made available for use in decision-making for future instructional strategies.

2. *Clarification of the supervisory rôle.* The supervisor at this point briefly reviews what is involved in the clinical process. Questions are answered and any answers or clarifications needed are given.

3. *Review of teacher's objectives.* The supervisor and the teacher review the objectives that the teacher has for the lesson. If they are not in performance terms (i.e., in terms of what the learner should be able to do after the class), the supervisor helps the teacher clarify and restate the objectives.

4. *Student entry and exit criteria.* The supervisor asks the teacher what, if any, prerequisite skills the students need to reach the class objectives. The supervisor also asks how the teacher will know if the students have attained the objectives.

5. *Instructional strategies and materials.* The pre-observation conference should be a time when the teacher briefly tells the supervisor the strategies and materials that will be used during the lesson. The teacher may want to explain the rationale for using a particular approach. For example, certain unusual circumstances may exist and the teacher may want to explain these to the supervisor.

6. *What to observe.* The supervisor and the teacher should agree on what observations by the supervisor would be of the most help to the teacher. The teacher may want the supervisor to observe the students' physical behaviour. The teacher may wish the supervisor to record what the teacher says. The assumption is that if the supervisor observes the behaviour they both agree on, then the teacher's anxiety will decrease.

Stage two: classroom observation

During this phase the supervisor records, as objectively as possible, the behaviour of the teacher, the students, or both. Since it is not possible to record all the classroom behaviour, the supervisor and the teacher should have decided during the pre-observation conference to focus only on certain behaviours, such as student physical or verbal behaviour. While the teacher may want the

observer to record only behaviour that can be observed, the supervisor's value judgements should not be included in the data.

Stage three: post-observation conference

After the class, the supervisor shares with the teacher the data that have been collected. Together they reconstruct the lesson and review the supervisor's records. After agreement has been reached on what actually took place, the supervisor and the teacher attempt to identify patterns of behaviour, e.g. recurrent behaviour, either physical or verbal. After certain patterns are identified from the data, the objectives of the lesson are reviewed and the identified patterns are compared with the stated objectives.

Patterns should be analysed in three categories: those which support the teacher's objectives, those which impede the attainment of the teacher's objectives, and those which are neutral or have no effect on the attainment of the objectives.

The supervisor and the teacher should attempt in the post-observation conference to plan strategies which will change or strengthen certain patterns. This is a crucial part of the clinical process. Many behaviours will be changed simply by having them recognized by the teacher, while others may need more specific attention. For example, if the teacher feels that the verbal patterns which appeared in the introduction of the lesson hindered the attainment of the objectives, the supervisor and the teacher may set up a plan utilizing the micro-teaching technique. The teacher may be dissatisfied with the verbal interaction patterns that are taking place between the teacher and the students. The supervisor and the teacher may work out a programme utilizing interaction analysis techniques. It is essential that agreement be reached on any future plans for improvement.

The clinical process described in this model is designed to be implemented by supervisors, principals, and teachers. The post-observation conference should serve to re-examine the clinical process with the teacher and discuss ways in which teachers can become more analytical about their own teaching. Through videotape, audiotape, fellow teachers, and students, teachers can gather data about their classroom behaviour. The goal of the supervisor in the post-observation conference is to explore ways to make the teacher more independent and to encourage self and collegial supervision. Plans may be introduced to provide training for the teacher in the use of videotape equipment, or to have the supervisor train entire departments to use the clinical process.

This model is a process by which instruction can be improved through change in teacher behaviour. In reality, however, it is more than that: it is a process designed to free the teacher and allow for self-analysis and collegial supervision.

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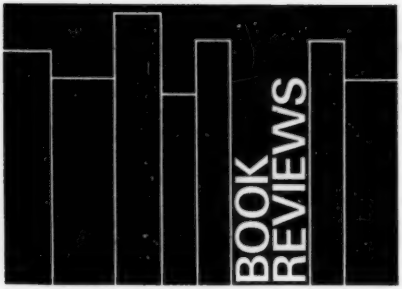

Reports and papers No. 9: modern languages and European studies

Centre for Information on Language Teaching and Research £0·50

This collection of papers is from a conference held by CILT on 1 and 2 February 1973. European Studies is a fast developing new element in the curriculum, ranging from the middle years of schooling to university degrees. Such a development, in our education system, cannot be proposed by the central authority, and therefore initiatives come from elsewhere. They have indeed come from various parts of the country, and from various interests in the existing curriculum. Anyone who receives and collates schemes of work and proposals can see quickly what the originating forces in each case are, and for whom they are intended. For obvious reasons one originating force has been the modern languages interest, and these papers to a large extent represent this.

Who are 'European studies' to be for, and what might be their content? At present they are mainly at CSE level, and are often worked out as programmes for the 'less able'. In the first main paper, Mrs. Freeman (Centre for Contemporary European Studies, Sussex University) indicates in fact 'a large proportion of so-called European studies are not only language based but are also concerned solely with particular linguistic communities and should perhaps' — (I would omit 'perhaps') — 'be more properly called "language area studies"'. Paper 6 by Mr. Boxford (Ormonde High School, Maghull, Lancs) is concerned in fact with German studies for the less able, and summarizes a CSE mode 3 syllabus. Mr. Neather, in writing about the Somerset syllabus in European studies states quite firmly that 'as an article of faith may I say that a language is an essential element of the European studies course'. From CSE, the Somerset working party have aimed at a GCE A level proposal whose structure would also 'lend itself to modification for use as a one or two year syllabus for O level'. (I have also now seen papers from another part of the country in European studies for a proposed CEE.)

Naturally enough, at a conference called by CILT, and presumably attended in the majority by language specialists, this problem of the language element in European studies is examined fairly closely. The structure of such courses remains open for discussion, and will do so for a long time to come. Paper 7 talks about 'background studies' to modern languages. It is interesting to read what is proposed, but not everyone is likely to think this way; and in Appendix 1, Dr. Morely from CILT does make the point that one must get away from a preoccupation with French and German and indicates ways in which many other languages could be used in course units in a syllabus of two intertwining elements: 'a socio-cultural component, and a language component'. He adds that 'this kind of course would not be an easy option'.

So we progress: CSE mode 3 for the less able: or courses that will not be easy options! Various elements, as background studies to one or more languages: or forms of integrated or interdisciplinary studies? And with these, again, for whom?

At Mill Hill School, a fairly far-reaching course of an interdisciplinary nature is designed for a 'group of 20 boys aged 13 [who are] chosen . . . on the basis of their all round academic ability'. The course is not an ex-

amination area in itself at either O or A level; these boys will take single discipline papers but the disciplines are in an arrangement, and this, amongst much else of great interest, involves 'preparing 19th century Europe through the medium of French'. Mr. Brown writes that 'enthusiasm is enormous, partly thanks to the sense of participating in something unusual. Written work is inevitably a problem . . . short answers on the lines demanded in the *Cahier de Travaux Pratiques* are all that is being looked for in terms on examination'.

Mrs. Richardson describes a scheme of 'non-specialist European studies in the VIth Form' at Nailsea School, Bristol (Paper 4). Interdisciplinary: involving two language specialists, one geography specialist, one music teacher, one RE specialist and one cookery specialist. As I do not know the school, I do not know the answer to the question of why this group is composed as it is, nor why this or that interest is not in it; as a historian certainly I would like to know where the history specialists are.

If one reads all these collected papers carefully, the essential problem—and the basic arguments that go on — in European studies can be found. How insular are most of our approaches even when we think that we are being innovatory? Mr. Sirevag from Norway, in Paper 8 finds our arguing about whether, and which and how much, in regard to languages, something that only the British can afford; but it can be suggested that it is precisely because we are British, speaking the world language, English, that we can afford the argument.

Any editor has to decide on the order of arrangement of papers. In this case the paper which asks the really searching questions, and puts forward seven possible models of curriculum, comes last (Paper 9: 'European studies and the study of Europe': C. V. James). His is a hard-hitting and provoking paper, which warmed my heart. It is critical of loose-thinking, the tail-wagging-dog situation, the settling on European studies as what seems to be a bright way out of real and major curriculum dilemmas; by stating that 'the European concept must permeate the entire curriculum' he is in the company of those who do not see European studies as a soft option.

These papers, therefore, do range from a simplistic view of European studies that should never in fact carry that name, to an increasingly perceptive and thorough-going examination of what kinds of problems will be, and must be faced if a proper job is to be made of them. It is Mr. James, again, who raises the matter of 'what is Europe?', which to my continuing fascination, is raised so rarely by the very people who should be preoccupied by it. He attacks inadequate definition, and 'myopic views' as doing nothing but harm; they are 'perhaps the most powerful argument in favour of divorcing the study of Europe from the teaching of languages'. Some European studies, he says, not only fail to propagate the concept of Europe, they impoverish and impede it; here, in the light of my own experience, I must agree.

I hope that European studies will grow to various kinds of maturity. For those already involved and those about to be, to read this collection of papers is quite a good introduction to the real problems that have to be faced. R.A.W.

A place for learning: aspects of secondary education in three English-speaking countries

Frances Stevens

Hutchinson Educational £6·50

The author writes: 'This is neither a record of meticulously performed research nor an educational Cook's tour: it is a work of controlled impressionism. In my three main spells of investigation and enquiry during the year 1968/69, I gave myself with both

freedom and concentration to all the educational experiences available. One eye was innocent and the other sophisticated and shrewd'.

This is a personal account of an enquiry based on the author's wide experience of English secondary education.[1, 2] It was carried out by Dr. Stevens in 11 public schools in Illinois (six senior high and five junior high schools) and seven high schools in Adelaide, South Australia (two of which were private schools). The enquiry was 'designed to explore some relationships between social circumstances and success in school; boys' and girls' experiences in school; their life out of school; their attitude to teachers, to the curriculum and to school in general; teachers' views of certain classes of students and of some individuals, distinguishing characteristics if there were any, of students whose degrees of success in school was not consistent with the level of their supposed ability; and relations between the pattern of school friendships and those of the students' academic status and social circumstances'.

Most of the investigation was concerned with students of ages 13 to 15 years. Additional contacts were made outside the sample, in particular with the Booker T. Washington Elementary School in Champaign.

The four groups of pupils selected represented each of four ability/achievement levels. One hundred and thirty three were selected for the interviews. These lasted an hour and were conducted individually by Dr. Stevens. In addition, each principal was asked to nominate not more than five bright under-achievers. Pupils who were outstandingly strong or outstandingly weak were included in the sample whose records were scrutinized. Records of the entire sample were examined and, where possible, discussed with teachers or counsellors. In all, 700 record cards were scrutinized. In addition to this, 37 high or low achievers, 44 under-achievers and 37 college entrants were examined against the information on their record cards.

In the interviews, which are described in detail in Parts 2 and 3, Dr. Stevens showed a deep concern for the feelings and views of the pupils. It is evident that she was able to put them at their ease at the outset by her warm frankness. She writes: 'I had long been interested in secondary education, particularly with regard to those children who, in an earlier generation, would not have been in the tradition of academic learning'. This interest is reflected throughout the investigation and particularly with regard to the lower groups (C and D) which comprise most of the pupils with family and social problems, and the bright under-achievers.

In Part 4, attendant circumstances of success and failure are considered. Attention is focused on two outcomes: Group D students (USA sample) show precisely as strong a tendency to be in the lowest socio-economic class as Group A students do to be in the highest. Evidence of maladjustment, of family disturbance and of classroom tensions is more frequent and tends to be 'of a more serious nature'. And, in the concluding paragraph of the comments on the comparable Australian sample, we find: 'But the enquiry seems to show that within the state schools themselves the advantages are decisively with the middle class'.

A special chapter in this section is devoted to the bright under-achievers. A careful analysis is made of the items of information supplied by teachers and others for strong and weak students and also for under-achievers. The most important attributes given by both American and Australian observers to under-achieving sudents are: imma-

[1] STEVENS, FRANCES. The living tradition: the social and educational assumptions of the grammar school. London, 1972 (Hutchinson), Third Edition.

[2] STEVENS, FRANCES. The new inheritors: some questions about the education of intelligent 'first generation' children. London, 1970 (Hutchinson).

ture 21 per cent, lack of effort 21 per cent, relationships with companion/peers 22 per cent, untidy 12 per cent, friendly 12 per cent, talkative 12 per cent. In addition, some have strong responsibilities to bear. Most of the attributes point to different expressions of some basic characteristics: immaturity, lack of integration, insecurity, self-distrust and restlessness. Dr. Stevens writes:

> I had expected . . . to find a marked tendency for social group D, and to some extent C, to be over-represented. This expectation proved, however, to be quite unjustified. The results for Australian schools were A31% D13% and for USA schools A43% D10%.
>
> These under-achievers tend to come from rather large families. The intelligent child who is the eldest of a rather large family is likely to be at an educational disadvantage.

Part 5 is concerned with problems. 'Whenever, in the course of these surveys, the connections of social circumstances and educational achievement have been investigated (in all three countries) the answer is the same; the two categories are the same'. Perhaps, in view of the scope of social circumstances, this is not surprising; for in this context, social circumstances were taken to comprise not only class but race and nationality, religion, neighbourhood, friendships, size of family and the emotional climate of the family. Two penetrating observations are made: 1. the comparative isolation of the D group in almost every school is disquieting; 2. the whole subject of expectations and achievement is profoundly disturbing. 'Are teachers ever as successful—or indeed as unsuccessful—as they think?'

There is an impressive list of suggestions for research, experiment and practice, and some outspoken comments on British education.

In brief, although this investigation deals with familiar problems of comprehensive education which have not yet been solved, I enjoyed reading it and found myself in accord with the views expressed. The lively case studies which interleave the theory made the text easy to read. Those concerned with these problems at first hand—teachers, heads and advisers—will appreciate the investigation and conclusions.

E.E.B.

Patterns of change in graduate employment. Monograph 19

Harriet Greenaway and Gareth Williams (editors)

Society for Research into Higher Education £2·70

Ten contributors explore the changing patterns of graduate employment following the expansion of higher education.

In 'The Impact of Educational Policies', Miss Greenaway accounts for the events that led up to the so-called crisis of graduate unemployment which was not normally the fate of highly educated people in the richer countries. She aims to encourage adaptability in the minds of graduates, their potential employers, and educationalists.

Professor Williams writes about 'The First Employment of University Graduates', 'The Economics of the Graduate Market', and 'Graduate Employment in Europe'. In the economics paper he considers the mechanisms of adjustment of the graduate labour market and theories about them.

In 'Career Influences on Students' Educational Choices', Mr. Watts points out the weaknesses of the present system and makes proposals to remedy them, and in 'Observations on the Present "Crisis",' Mr. Snow reminds us that Government has intervened by increasing the percentage of 18-year-olds in higher education and should become responsible for its effects. In a 'CBI View of Graduates in Industry', Mr. Bury discusses new areas of employment for graduates, while in 'The Mid-Career Problems of Graduates in Industry', Mr. Robins examines the recent shake-out and retraining possibilities, and Messrs. Wil-

kinson and Mace in 'Manpower Forecasting and Qualified Engineers' show that the 1960s forecasts were misleading and may have misled the planners. There was no evidence for the persistent shortages that were predicted and little to justify the present concern about a surplus.

Finally, in 'Is There a Crisis?', the editors identify three main points: the slow adaptation of the labour market, the discordance between curricula and employment needs, and the need to plan carefully for educational change.

This book is recommended reading for educational administrators, undergraduates, and for all who attempt to advise them. P.S.

Teachers' centres

R. E. Thornbury (editor)

Darton, Longman & Todd £1·50

This symposium contains four lucid personal accounts of the development of individual teachers' centres in different parts of the country: Enfield, Burnley, Cornwall and Southwark. They provide useful material for comparison and contrast, as well as varied examples of good practice. At the same time, they show something of the excitement felt by wardens who were creating both a new resource and a new rôle in situations of varying difficulty.

Professor Matthews has contributed an article which is more concerned with the Nuffield Primary Mathematics Project than with centres themselves. He shows how the growth of centres came with the Project, but omits to mention that mathematics centres already existed in Devon and Dorset, created to provide follow-up for in-service courses at the instigation of HMI, who also suggested to Nuffield before Dr. Matthews was appointed that the provision of a teachers' centre should be made a condition of accepting an LEA as a pilot area in the project.

The editor, who also writes three introductory chapters on the history of centres and a final one speculating on their future, is undoubtedly a busy warden who cares for the cause of teachers. So busy, unfortunately, that his writing suffers from inaccuracies and misuse of words. For instance, no credit is given to the University of Manchester ATO for their part in the North West Curriculum Development Project (p. 25); Townsend's research into teachers' views of in-service education as a whole is described on p. 8 as 'a special analysis of the 1241 teachers who attended courses at centres'; full-scale school inspections by HMI are described as 'a practice dropped in recent years', which it never was. As for style, we have neologisms like 'demurrals', and metaphors unwisely chosen—'a catalyst in the alchemy when courses transmute into curriculum development and vice versa'. (Are courses, or curriculum development, cast as base metal, and who tries to turn gold into base metal?) This slapdash approach makes his writing irritating and calls the quality of his thinking into question. This is a pity, for he has much to say.

K.M.B.

Family history in schools

D. J. Steel and L. Taylor

Phillimore £1·50

If the value of a notion lies in the sense it makes of other notions, *Family History* must be counted a success. The authors outline their project as an historical enquiry in local and national terms, but more than once they scout the word 'history', for what they offer is a peep-hole on to a whole society, or rather a receding series of societies, and discuss the work both as an interdisciplinary enquiry and, more important, as a social experience which gives depth to the world through which pupils are too often hurried. The Main Line programme takes pupils further and further back, to the First World War or earlier, in a way familiar through the BBC's *Not So Long Ago*. Branching pro-

grammes to enlarge the study are in some cases the stuff of dreams, as becomes obvious in the case histories of the concluding chapters, but the book comes from experience and is as honest about weaknesses as it abounds in alternatives.

Teachers who respond to the concrete and detailed as much as children do will find most to stimulate—one might say force—their attention in the seven chapters on the oral, written, printed, pictorial, archival and artefact evidence left by a blessedly untidy folk and (inevitably more sketchily) on interviewing and recording, indexing material, school collections and display, and the mysteries of Record Offices and Somerset House. The authors have not brought out as clearly as they presumably intended to do the process and benefits of forming a composite picture from the labours of individual pupils, but teachers will make sure that this comes about as they work. The detritus of centuries of squirrelling has of course been jettisoned by so many families under the necessity of successive moves into ever smaller brick boxes, and it is sad that they may never have a history now.

D.G.W.

Educator extraordinary: the life and achievements of Henry Morris

Harry Ree

Longman £2·75

This reviewer must state that he is of the same generation as the author and one of those many undergraduates of the 1930s who through Henry Morris had their eyes opened to beauty in many of its forms; music, poetry, art, and above all, architecture. His reaction to the book is not the same as that of one reviewer who made the misleading statement that there were more friends at Morris's cremation (not graveside) than at his bedside. The book does not record a tragedy; what emerges from its pages is a very complicated character: generosity and meanness, breadth of vision and short-sighted antagonism, brilliant repartee and vindictive asides. And it describes with insight Henry Morris's unrequited homosexual love when it was at its most intense. That it was love and not loveless sexuality is made abundantly clear. Thus the picture that emerges is one of highlights and deep shadows, of ecstatic human relationships and of hatred and loss of friendship. But surely this is one of the characteristics of the artistic temperament which reaches the heights of achievement and the slough of frustrated hopes.

But what of the achievement? The book gives a clear account of the chronological development of the idea of the village college and of the practical implementation of the idea in terms of the provision of actual buildings. That this was done in a county with low rateable value against the background of apathy or lack of enthusiasm on the part of dons, councillors and Board of Education officials justified Henry Morris in calling himself a practical idealist. But economic crisis and World War II delayed fulfilment and had it not been for his deputy and successor, George Edwards, Cambridgeshire would not now have a network of village colleges throughout the county. So final achievement of the vision of 1924 was not attained until after his death. But between his retirement and his death he did achieve another of his aims: the foundation of the Digswell House Trust as a centre for young artists to live and work in close association with a community. In November 1973 the Victoria and Albert Museum brought together the evidence to show how much the arts meant to Henry Morris and the importance that he attached to them in any form of education. His contribution to the improvement of education architecture was recognized by the award of an honorary ARIBA.

The last chapter of the book could not have been written immediately after his death because the influence

of Morris's ideas would not have been so plain to see, and this is well authenticated by quotations from other education officers. Here is a clear and accurate picture of a determined man of vision who also had the administrative ability to provide a lead in community-based adult education and in environmental awareness through the machinery of local government. His work has influenced social and educational thinking profoundly and the book is important to all working in education today.

H.L.F.

Educational research in Britain 3
H. J. Butcher and H. B. Pont (editors)
University of London Press £4·60

Research perspectives in education
William Taylor (editor)
Routledge & Kegan Paul £3·25

In the Butcher and Pont series another usefully varied and authoritative volume has appeared. The editors are modest about their rôle, but in a brief introduction they make several important points, notably the observations that the development of more elaborate, expensive research enquiries has not been pure gain and that the apprentice system of training for research is creaking badly. Taylor is in agreement on these points and adds his concern about the fragmentation of research energies and the inadequacy of our commitment to long-term research programmes. His volume has a more critical approach to the problem of relating research to decision-making. This is demonstrated in his own contributions, that contributed by Glennerster and Hoyle, and that by Swift which seems to this reviewer the sharpest and most original piece that the book contains. He supports Taylor with some telling examples of the need for developing theoretical instruments adequately for the task of interpreting data. Taylor points to the large volume of curriculum development work now going on and suggests that it rests on a very narrow conceptual base. There are indeed many indications that the material output of these projects is often much less significant than their contribution to our knowledge of how pupils, teachers and scholastic institutions respond to changes in organization, teaching style and method.

Both volumes contain one contribution from overseas. In Butcher and Pont, Professor Brehaut from Ontario commends the critical attitude towards research which he holds to be characteristic of English education. In Taylor, Professor Harnqvist describes the appropriate personnel management principles for the efficient functioning of an educational research industry. The contrasting standpoints are significant. In Taylor's section, entitled 'Disciplinary Perspectives', the philosopher and the historian play a prominent part. Professor Simon concludes a long and stimulating essay with a reference to Gombrich's belief that in his field the academic industry of research 'threatens to become the enemy of culture and of cultural history'. On the other hand, research work described at length in Butcher and Pont on the education of handicapped and maladjusted children shows not only its importance, but the essential need for high degrees of skill and experience in the construction and execution of research designs.

These two books are more valuable than many collections of essays on education. They indicate both the breadth and depth of the work on which leaders of educational thought are engaged.

D.M.H.

The curriculum: research, innovation and change
P. H. Taylor and J. Walton (editors)
Ward Lock Educational £1·35

Philip Taylor and Jack Walton have collected into this symposium the proceedings of the inaugural Standing Conference on Curriculum Studies

held at Exeter during March 1973. It is valuable that papers read in the individual seminars on practical curriculum development, curriculum courses in colleges and universities, curriculum research, the schools and the curriculum, and managing innovation and change as well as the major lectures by Paul Hirst and Frank Musgrove are given wider audience. The list of authors is impressive, but especially in view of their emphasis on the need to effect change at teacher/pupil level it is disappointing that only one of the 15 contributors is a head. Their chairmen summarize the main points emerging from the five seminars, though in the seminar on the schools and the curriculum one would have welcomed some indication of issues raised by group members themselves, including teachers.

In 'Toward a logic of curriculum development' Hirst argues powerfully for clearer and more conscious thinking about what curriculum development should try to achieve: existing experiments produce results of interest and increase knowledge of development processes, but are largely haphazard and add little rationality to curricula. Clearer identification of the desired outcomes of the curriculum, he argues, is a prerequiste of rational curriculum change. Musgrove's paper on 'The curriculum for a world of change' is largely based on his studies of 'the alternate scene', interviews with students and members of communes, free schools and anarchist groups. He looks ahead to further changes in society and, without suggesting solutions, predicts increasing conflict between 'the counter culture' and values implicit in most curricula and teacher-pupil relationships. W.G.H.

The management of curriculum development

J. G. Owen

Cambridge University Press £1·60

This book, as the author himself implies, attempts too much. Most of it is devoted to description of the forces which tend to influence the activities of English schools, but there are also two sections of comment on new styles and fashions in teaching and school organization. Somewhere in the book most of the current preoccupations of educationalists are referred to. Always interesting, because Mr. Owen has the wide reading, the experience and the quality of mind to do justice to either of his main themes, it leaves one with the impression of someone thinking aloud and generally rather depressed by his thoughts. In the earlier chapters there are some inaccuracies, not only in matters of details such as when Matthew Arnold and Michael Sadler are coupled as 'eminent in HM Inspectorate'. The plan adapted and the amount of detail supplied seem not to facilitate clarity of exposition. The last two sections could well have been expanded. The comment they contain on innovations such as family grouping, team teaching and integrated studies is helpful and realistic, but sometimes they read like notes for a more thorough and leisurely work. D.M.H.

Reviews in brief

Reading, how to

Herbert Kohl

Penguin Education £0·50

'There is no reading problem. There are problem teachers and problem schools'. 'Learning to read is no more difficult than learning to walk or talk'. The author presents a refreshingly straightforward approach to a subject increasingly hedged about with myths. Kohl advocates no expensive learning aids, only a combination of respect for the mind of the learner, a wish to learn to read, and a belief in its importance, and patience. He offers his own analysis of the process of reading, as well as a large number of suggestions for developing reading programmes, and for using familiar

written materials such as packages, product labels and street signs as reading aids.

Teaching left-handed children

Margaret M. Clark

University of London Press £0·50

The author is an educational psychologist with experience of primary school teaching and as a lecturer in a college of education. She provides in this second edition of her book an up-to-date summary of research on left-handedness and discusses the basic methods of teaching writing to left-handed children. The book is intended for all teachers, especially of infants and juniors, and also for parents who are worried that their left-handed children are experiencing difficulties in learning to write.

Adventure playgrounds

Jack Lambert and Jenny Pearson

Penguin £0·60

Jack Lambert first became involved with adventure playgrounds in 1964 — he was a student and needed a summer job. He has been involved with them ever since, in projects all over England, in Berlin and in Copenhagen. Jack Lambert believes 'there is a positive value in working with what you've got; it not only saves money, but is much more fun'. Improvization, imagination and initiative—on the part of play leaders and children — have made adventure playgrounds the success they deserve to be. An appendix has some useful notes on starting an adventure playground.

Pre-school play

Kenneth Jameson and Pat Kidd

Cassell and Collier Macmillan £1·95

This book details the many activities that have been found suitable for playgroups—activities through which the young child learns about, and is stimulated by, the world around him. The greater the diversity, and the richer the quality of play, the surer the emotional and intellectual growth of the child. The authors arrange these play activities under the heading of arts and crafts, literary, fantasy, visual stimulation and physical activity. This book should provide an abundant source of ideas both for playgroup leaders and for parents of pre-school children.

Mixed or single-sex school ?

R. R. Dale

Routledge & Kegan Paul £5·95

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